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Guidance

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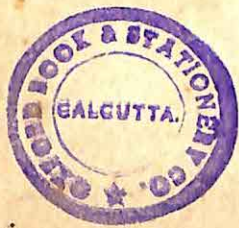
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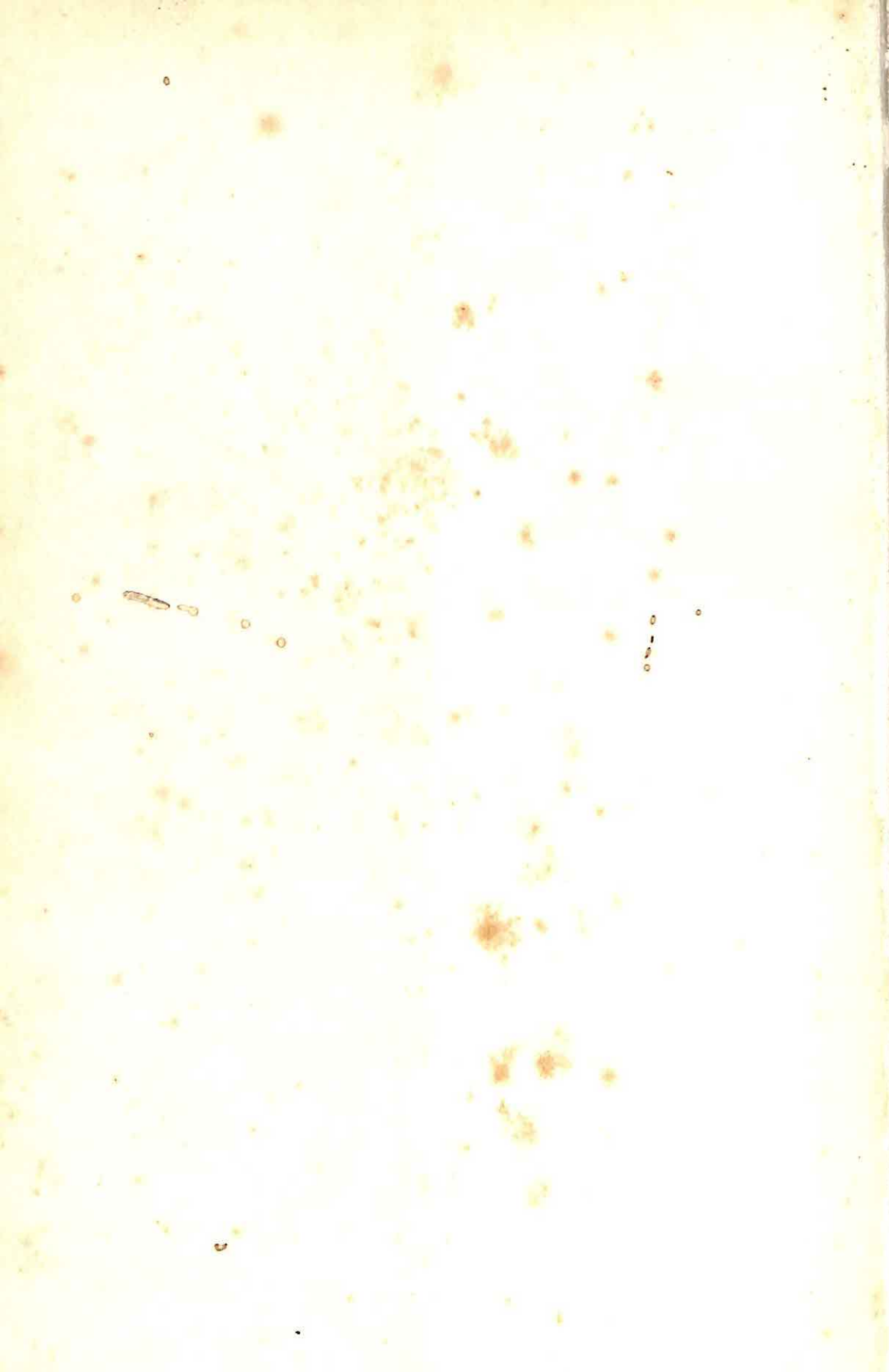
Schools

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Guidance
in
Today's
Schools

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Preface

The need for an organized guidance program in education has become imperative. World, national, and local conditions, and technical developments have created tensions which are confusing or threatening to each individual as never before in our history. Great as the challenge now is to our way of education, in fact to our whole way of life, the democratic society remains one which is based upon concern for the worth and dignity of each individual as well as need for his best productive efforts. It is this concern and this need that form the bases for guidance in the school.

Because guidance is a responsibility of political and social leaders, educators, and parents, there is need for a view of its philosophy and functions which can reach the widest possible audience. We believe that awareness of the problems of guidance must come not only to education but to the community as well. The democratic society, which underlines the worth of the individual, depends upon a unique form of education. To make this education a reality, in turn, requires an organized program of guidance working in harmony with the community out of which it emerges. The success that any guidance effort will enjoy depends upon the intelligent interest and participation of all personnel concerned.

This book is an effort to present in proper perspective four essential and inter-related parts of the guidance program: (1) understanding

of each individual by self and others; (2) knowledge of social needs and values in our technological society; (3) specialized guidance services which will assist all pupils to make wise plans and choices and healthy adjustments; and (4) provision of challenging educational experiences through curriculum and instruction. Thus, we believe that the book may be read with profit not only by the specialists in guidance but also by all those concerned with the central purpose of education: the optimum development of mature and productive citizens to take their places in a free society.

More specifically, this textbook was written for use in introductory courses in guidance, counseling, and pupil personnel work. It should help teachers (who usually constitute the largest segment of such courses), advisers, counselors, and administrators in their grappling with problems of guidance. Basic concepts and illustrations have been chosen which apply to both elementary and secondary levels.

We have attempted to keep our own biases to a minimum. We have tried to make clear that ours is a philosophy of *eclecticism* with respect to the guidance function. Such a view literally necessitates arbitrary selection of materials since the joining of opposing viewpoints can hardly be done otherwise. There exists always the danger of oversimplification in selecting what is considered best in the different points of view. The results will have to justify the selections we have made. There was no desire, however, to construct a pattern merely for the sake of the pattern itself. Wherever contradictions arose these were set forth as such and included in the body of the text.

A word should be added here concerning the inclusion of background materials relating to the philosophical and scientific bases of guidance. It is highly unlikely that an examination of the nature and organization of guidance as a movement in its own right can be effective without an understanding of these principles out of which it emerged and which give it meaning today.

Many people have been of invaluable assistance in the evolvment of this book. Our thanks go to all of them. Special thanks, however, must go to David Bilovsky, John Dahl, John Lallas, Robert Morman, Marjorie Morrison, and Seymour Stein; also to Arthur Coladarci for his helpful suggestions; and above all to Dorothy Mortensen who did all of the typing and clerical work.

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Pasadena, California
January 5, 1959

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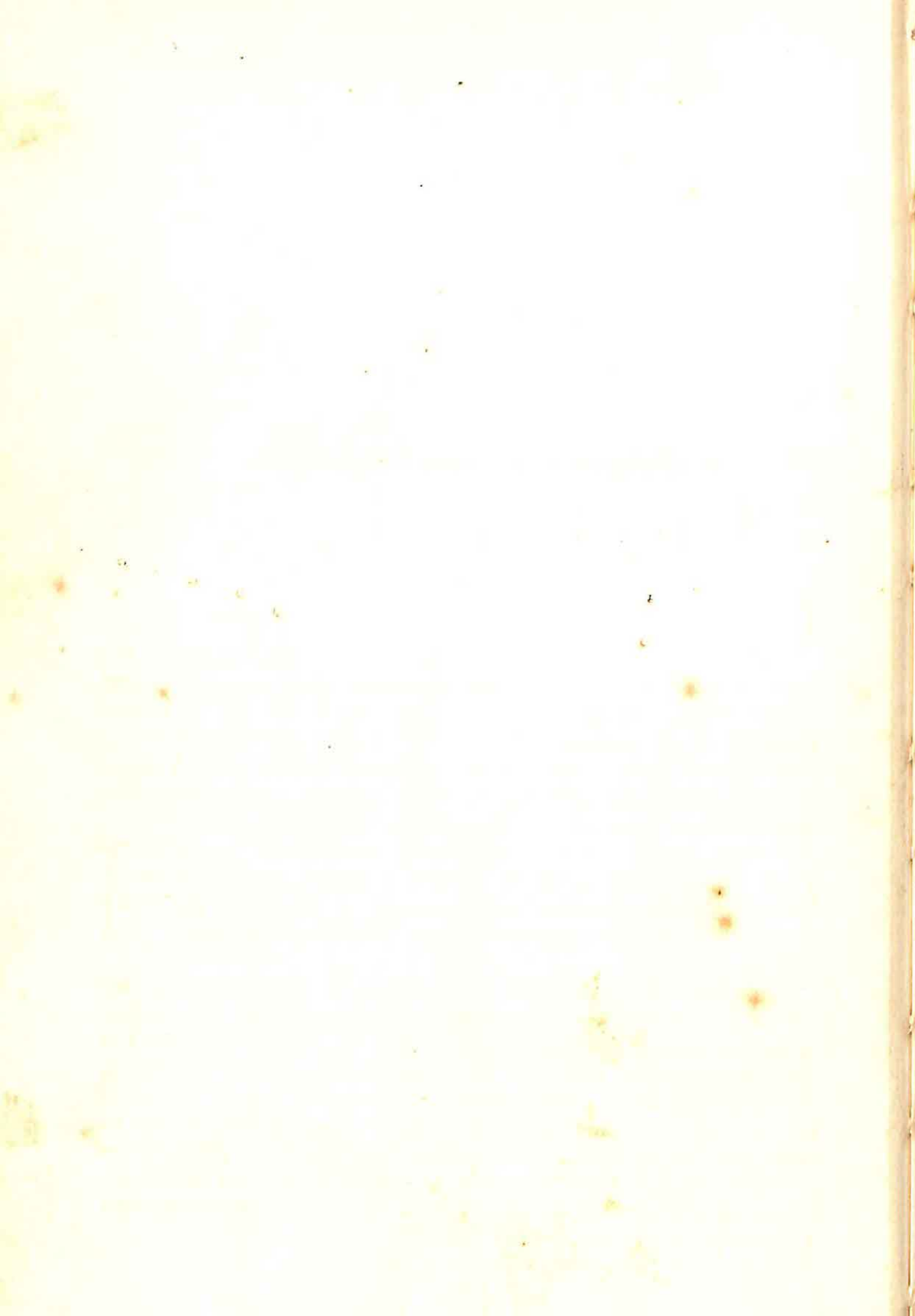
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Part I

*The
Meaning
of
Guidance*



Chapter 1

Introduction to Guidance

Guidance is a comparatively new field—within the larger and more inclusive field of education—and many of its concepts are still to be adequately defined and stabilized. From one viewpoint guidance clearly embraces all of education; from another, it is seen as a specialized service whose primary concern is with the individual. In general, however, guidance has been accepted as the personalization of education both in theory and in practice.)

(A more specific way for summing up the guidance function is in terms of the enhancement of individual growth and development. For it is true that guidance seeks to insure on all levels of the educational process those conditions necessary to the improvement of every student.

Considered from this viewpoint, guidance may be defined as *that part of the total educational program that helps provide the personal opportunities and specialized staff services by which each individual can develop to the fullest of his abilities and capacities in terms of the democratic ideal.* This definition, then, implies that the individual has not only certain rights but also distinct responsibilities within the democratic society. It implies further that to achieve the goals of guidance requires that pupils, parents, teachers, guidance specialists, school administrators, school board members, and the community must work cooperatively together as a team.)

The Need for Guidance

The need for guidance in today's schools has grown out of a traditional American belief in educational opportunity for all. As the practical expression of this belief, guidance serves as a primary means for providing the contact and help needed in the school on a *personal* level. Through guidance the individual is helped to develop in ways that will enable him (1) to strengthen the use of his own abilities, (2) to make wise choices, and (3) to face the problems he will encounter in and out of school. This strengthening of the individual's determination and power to use his own abilities becomes, then, the central function of guidance.

The changes in American society will no doubt continue to make wide and unprecedented demands in the areas of occupational, educational, community, and family life. *Mobility* and *specialization* are now the distinguishing characteristics of a constantly expanding population.

Mass migrations from one area of the land to the other (chiefly from East to West) have had a profound effect upon family and community life. Such migrations have resulted in noticeably reduced social controls and civic responsibility. Moving about, with all its attractions, can hardly provide the kind of stability found in the settled community. On the more positive side, however, has come increased productivity, as well as a higher standard of living generally.

Increased productivity has also brought about a further extension of specialization in such revolutionary areas as nuclear development, automation, and the conquest of space. This condition has, in turn, called for more and more skilled people and collaterally for improved educational facilities to insure the availability of such people. Our security, in fact, our very survival as a nation, according to our leaders, now depends in great part upon the continued supply of first-rank scientists.

The ever-growing complexity and interdependence of our urban society has brought about new analyses of our value-systems as well as new adjustments for every individual. These considerations imply further expansion of education into the realms of both the family and the community. Certainly if these problems are not resolved adequately the individual will cease to have the importance needed in a democratic society. A way must be found not only to preserve individualism but to provide each person with an effective role in our society regardless of how conditions change. Anticipating this emergency, the White House Conference in 1955, stated: "Our schools are

asked to teach skills currently needed by the nation, but never at the expense of the individual. This policy of encouraging each child to develop his individual talents will be of the greatest use to the nation, for in the long run, *if no talent is wasted in our land, no skill will be lacking.*"¹

A description of some of the happenings in one community may illustrate the need for a guidance program.

Many new people are moving into the community. Some are seeking suburban living and others are coming to work in the new industries and businesses. (The community had restricted industry to light manufacturing; design and production of small instruments and electronic materials are encouraged.)

The old families have privately expressed anxiety about their adolescent children dating some of the teen-age sons and daughters of the new residents. According to the chief of police, there are now too many undisciplined youths who have too much money to spend and time to waste.

The increase in school enrollments is more rapid than the school district is prepared for. Increased taxes and school bonds are frequently talked about, especially before a forthcoming election. The pupil-teacher ratio in both the elementary and high schools is nearer forty than thirty. Teachers are complaining, not only about overcrowding, but about pressures from parents. There is talk of getting a new superintendent. Some parents are wondering what the schools are trying to do, anyway.

The teachers in one elementary school feel that they are getting most of the "undesirables." Three or four disruptive pupils in each class are taking all of the pleasure out of teaching. In addition, there seem to be more different children: one little boy is partially sighted; another is cerebral palsied. Even the gifted children present an additional teaching load.

The teachers in the high school are concerned with adequate standards. There appear to be too many slow readers or pupils with negative attitudes toward study. Even some of the graduates who have gone to college state that they were not challenged in high school; nor did they learn how to budget their time, take proper notes, and meet the higher standards of college. On the other hand, there is a high percentage of high school graduates going on to college. Reports in the newspapers about former students have indicated that several are making outstanding records.

The pupils seem to have their individual problems; although the problems may not be understood and accepted by their owners. Three examples follow:

1. One junior high school girl in her autobiography, written for an English class, stated (and these are her exact words):

¹ Reported by Paul J. Misner, "The New School," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XXXVII (January 1956), p. 183. (Italics are the author's.)

"Junior High! man was I some body now. But I wrong only I could not see right then I had to every body tell me I wasn't nobody. Yes! I could of been someone they everybody looked up to. but I didn't go about in the right way. I wanted every thing my way. I thought I could make every one like me. but I was wrong. school had been started about a month and half when I ditched, it really wasnt my first time, but the second, I had ditched school once before, When I was in sixth, but it was only a half of a day. Here I was going to ditch a whole day, go up town with them, eta, drink cokes, and smoke. been smoking for almost year ever since the 6th grade only my folks didn't it at the time"

2. Each afternoon the group of popular girls at the junior high school are spending considerable time consuming excessive amounts of candy and other sweets. Their conversations indicate they are greatly concerned about the problems involved in early dating, and how to keep up with their studies in addition to all of their activities.

3. Many of the boys and girls in the elementary schools seem to be unable to find challenging activities for their free time after school and during the summer months. In fact, Chuck C., one of the brightest youngsters in the fifth grade is shunned by most of the parents in the neighborhood because as someone said, "He could dream up some of the damndest things to do."

In another situation, it is noted that many of the older citizens of the community are asking the recreation department, the adult evening program at the high schools, or the churches to provide something for them that they might feel wanted as contributing members of the community.

In one area of town where the houses are getting old and the yards are not as well kept as in other neighborhoods, there seems to be some feeling that this is where delinquency is breeding.

Relation of Guidance to Education

Guidance, as defined in this book, is part of the larger and more inclusive social institution of education. Thus the major objectives of guidance and of the school are identical: the preparation of desirable citizens who accept effective roles in our society. This identity of goals is underscored by a recent statement issued under the auspices of the California State Department of Education: "The outlooks, insights, attitudes, appreciations, and behaviors that children acquire and the facility with which they employ patterns of action which make

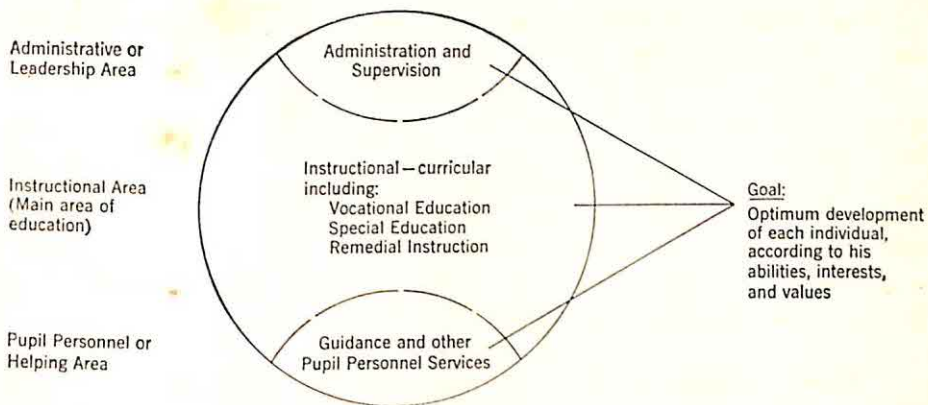


Fig. 1-1. *The Educational Process.*

them effective members of society depend upon the guidance they are given.”²

Differences between Guidance and Education. Whereas the goals of guidance are the same as the goals of education that emphasize individual development and competence, there are *very important distinctions* between the specialized personnel and services of guidance and of other areas of education. Perhaps this difference can best be explained by first demarcating the areas of education and then setting forth the specialized area of pupil personnel work and guidance. It is assumed, and most educators concur, that the educative process may be separated into three well-defined areas. (See Fig. 1-1.)

1. Instructional. All phases of teaching which are involved in imparting knowledge, skills, and attitudes to pupils are included.

2. Administrative or leadership. This is the area where responsibility and authority for the functioning of the educational process are placed. Many problems such as planning, budgeting, staffing, building, and supervising are involved.

3. Pupil personnel (and guidance). It is in this new area of education that specialized personnel are required to perform the services and functions needed to make certain, in a complex society, those opportunities every pupil deserves or requires for maximum development. The acceptance of pupil personnel services as a separate and respected area of the educational process in no way reduces their

² *Teachers Guide to Education in Early Childhood*, p. 175. Compiled by the Bureau of Elementary Education under the direction of the State Curriculum Commission, California State Department of Education, 1956.

effectiveness as part of the team of instructional, administrative, and pupil personnel services.

The specialized services of the pupil personnel-guidance area are described in the following section. In the section succeeding that, the services (and goals) are simplified into three basic functions which are recognized as standard in the "helping professions."

Guidance Services

The past decade has witnessed some general agreement as to the services which are to be included in guidance. Erickson, among others, has defined guidance services as follows:

1. *Individual inventory* service emphasizes individual differences and makes possible a developmental study of each child throughout his total school life. Cumulative records and case studies are included.

2. *The counseling* service provides opportunity for individual pupils, in a personal and confidential relationship with a qualified counselor, to better understand themselves, make choices and decisions and resolve minor conflicts. This is generally accepted as the heart of the guidance service.

3. *The information* service includes the dissemination of all special kinds of information useful to the pupil, but primarily information about occupations, training programs, and community agencies.

4. *The placement* service is broader than occupational placement; rather, it is the placement of the pupil in planned learning experiences. Its success is, in a large part, dependent upon the quality of leadership involved.

5. *The follow-up* service is concerned with the continued help in adjustment of the student after graduation. In addition, through the follow-up service there is collected information for the evaluation of school curricular and guidance offerings.³

Pupil Personnel Services. These services are generally regarded as somewhat more inclusive than guidance services per se. Both guidance and pupil personnel services, however, share common objectives and methods.

According to one list prepared by a prominent group of pupil personnel specialists and reported from the U.S. Office of Education, the services included in their area may be summed up as follows:

- a. Child accounting and attendance
- b. Orientation
- c. Counseling
- d. Clinical
- e. Individual analysis
- f. Health

³ C. E. Erickson, *A Basic Text for Guidance Workers* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1947), Chap. 1.

- g. Home-community-school
- h. Occupational and educational information
- i. Placement and follow-up⁴

It will soon be apparent that the services subsumed under headings b, c, e, h, and i are the same as the guidance services quoted from Erickson just previously.

Another method for classifying pupil personnel work is through different areas of specialization. Such a classification is not to be interpreted as meaning that these areas should be handled only by specialists. Instead, graduate training programs should be developed to train people who will serve the *complex* needs of the pupils in our society. These services and specialists⁵ can be summed up as follows:

- a. Guidance services—school counselors.
- b. Psychological services—school psychometrists and psychologists.
- c. Health services—nurses, physicians, psychiatrists.
- d. Attendance services—registrars, attendance workers, etc.
- e. Social-work services—school social workers.

Student personnel services is the inclusive term applied to equivalent pupil-personnel-services functions in the colleges. Deans of students, in addition to performing those services just listed, usually supervise financial assistance to students, student housing, and student activities.

Related areas. *Special education* with its specialists and services for training the mentally retarded; visually, aurally, and physically handicapped; gifted; and other exceptional children is a closely related area. While some school districts combine their special-education facilities with pupil personnel services, the majority have thus far included them as part of the instruction services.

Remedial instruction and speech correction are rightly considered as in the instructional field even though they are more closely related to personnel functions.

Supervision of student or extracurricular *activities* has been variously assigned to staff members in the administrative, instructional, or personnel fields.

Investigation and punishment of violators of school rules or *disciplinary cases* are regarded as an administrative responsibility. Diagnosis and treatment of the individual as a person with behavior problems, however, are considered to be pupil personnel functions.

⁴ U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, *Pupil Personnel Services in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, Circular No. 325, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1951.

⁵ See Chapters 2 and 3 for additional information concerning these specialists.

In the process of insuring effective assistance for the individual specialized personnel and services are distinctly necessary. Specialized services require both professional workers and supervisors. As such they must be recognized as a unique and facilitative pupil personnel function of the educational process.

Functions of Guidance

The following functions submitted by the authors of the present book were selected to serve as common bases for the understanding of the goals and services of guidance by teachers, administrators, and pupil personnel specialists, as well as by the people in the community. These functions have proper regard for age group and specific need and are applicable on all levels of education.

They represent "areas of agreement" from the fields of education, medicine, social work, psychology, and other "helping professions." The historical development of guidance is shot through with contributions from many allied disciplines. An examination of functions considered basic to guidance can hardly be effective without an understanding of those influences which made guidance possible in the first place.

Originally guidance workers emphasized the remedial aspects of their field. The "problem child" became the focus of interest quite often to the exclusion of children with normal problems. The literature during this "remediation" period was heavily weighted with the problem approach. The emphasis now is upon the optimum development of all pupils. The following three major functions of guidance point up these concerns:

Understanding the Individual (Appraisal or Diagnostic). It has already been suggested in different ways that education is a means for stimulating the human personality to fullest expression. In order, however, to achieve this purpose, there must first be an understanding of what this personality is and how it operates. (Two chapters have been set aside to deal with this complex problem.) Guidance walks on one leg, so to speak; if the guidance worker lacks insight into how and why the individual behaves, prevention or treatment cannot be provided. Diagnosis must precede therapy; understanding must precede teaching and counseling.

The desideratum in education is to establish such directed ex-

periences as will contribute to the effective development of the learner as a person. The attempts made by some guidance workers in the past to pump meaning into behavior solely as a result of paper-and-pencil testing or an anecdotal report have militated against an adequate understanding of the pupil in terms of his individual development. It has been a primary concern of this work to explore the possibilities of personality development within the context of the greater educational process. Care has been taken, nevertheless, to make the necessary distinction between personality development as such and the effects of guidance on this development. The value of guidance is to be sought in practical results. Individuals will grow and develop in one way or another. The acid test lies in understanding how to guide such development in terms of accepted goals.

To successfully understand the individual it is evident that individual inventory, analysis, or appraisal will be necessary. Such a step, obviously, must be taken by the specialist before he can provide assistance to those he seeks to help.

Preventive-Developmental. These functions are combined under one heading since they describe two sides of the same coin. Prevention seeks to avoid impairment or breakdown of the individual by providing healthy influences; developmental guidance seeks to establish ways of thinking and acting which will help each individual to develop optimally—thus precluding serious problems.

By thus combining the preventive and developmental aspects of guidance any implications that problems are to be avoided or that individuals are coddled are silenced.

The individual must early be taught that he can not make a habit of running away from his problems. The classroom and counselor's office must be places where "problem-solving" is a fundamental feature of learning. Improvement in ability to solve problems comes about through instruction which challenges but does not overwhelm the student.

Where instruction is provided for all children who are educable teachers, administrators, and guidance specialists must all combine to insure a program of experiences which are designed to strengthen the learner's abilities and confidence. Helping the instructional staff to adapt the community-prescribed curriculum for the development of each pupil becomes then a major aspect of guidance.

Orientation, information, health, counseling, and other preventive-developmental services are offered as ways to provide accurate information about schools, jobs, and essential life experiences. Not

only do inoculation against disease and opportunity for individual counseling help each child rise to the heights possible to him but such help prevents both physical and mental impairment.

Helping the Individual to Improve His Adjustment (Remediation or Correction). Despite the most inclusive guidance programs it seems that for the foreseeable future, at least, there will be those who require further support and direction. All individuals at one time or another need some help, the difference being in degree rather than kind. The emphasis on continuity in the guidance program thus becomes evident.

The prevention of maladjustment presents itself as the ideal situation. In a number of cases, however, preventive measures may not be sufficient. It is at this stage that corrective measures must be sought. It is well to point out at this juncture that even in correction the aim still is to strengthen the individual's own problem-solving abilities.

For the extreme cases of maladjustment, specialists both in the school and from the community will have to be brought into the guidance program. Some individuals, however, can be helped merely through access to needed information. Still others can be effectively helped through the services of the counselor.

Real and lasting improvement emerges *from the individual's own understanding and efforts* to improve. The person who has been helped to modify his behavior so as to avoid possible delinquency or mental illness represents untold savings in human resources and community funds—a fact tragically evidenced by our overcrowded penal institutions and hospitals.

It is in this area of treatment, i.e., improvement of individual adjustment, that specialists are particularly required. Skilled psychologists, social workers, and psychiatrists are increasingly needed in the schools and clinics to provide individual counseling and therapy as well as to give direction for the provision of therapeutic activities within the school. (See Table 1-1 for an over-all view of guidance-personnel work.)

Theory and Practice

It is one of the more singular features of the American educational scene that the foundations of guidance are so little understood that theory and practice are regarded as having little or no relationship to each other. It is not that the theoretical bases of guidance have failed

TABLE 1-1. A BROAD OVER-VIEW OF GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL WORK

The General Functions ↓	→ Services Required ↓	→ Staffed by the Team Members ↓	→ Background Knowledge Required ↓	→ Techniques Employed ↓	→ For Assistance to ↓
Understanding the individual	Individual study (including diagnosis by specialists)	Teachers	The personality of the individual	Observation	Pupils
Preventive	Providing challenging learning experiences	Teacher-counselors	Growth and development	Testing	Teachers, administrators, and other school staff
Developmental	Information and orientation	Nurses and supervisors	How the person learns and adjusts	Cumulative records and case conferences	Parents
Helping to improve the adjustment	Placement Follow-up Counseling Referral to specialists for remedial instruction or treatment	Administrators and psychometrists	Group processes	Interviews	Community
		Social workers	Demands of society	Autobiographies	
		Remedial instructors	Democratic practices	Parent conferences	
		Psychologists	Mental hygiene and health education	Physical examinations	
		Physicians and psychiatrists	The world of work, etc.	Sociometry	
			Individual and group counseling	Exploratory experiences	
			Community agencies and clinics	Discussion and other group activities	
				Recreation	
				Classroom experiences	
				Role playing	
				Counseling	
				Remedial techniques	
				Therapeutic techniques by specialists	

to come under intense scrutiny and criticism. To the contrary, there have been genuinely creditable efforts to analyze the problem.

Whatever the previous circumstances, there exists at this point a need for an examination of the structure and nature of guidance as well as of its procedures. Though such a need is evident, there are many persons, both in education and outside of it, who have come to doubt or speculate whether the relationship between the two can be clarified. It is certainly possible, however, to take the preliminary steps toward an analysis of guidance within the framework of the educational process. It is these first steps which comprise the bulk of the chapters which lie ahead.

There has arisen the happy realization that neither theory nor method can any longer function effectively alone. Methods of guidance are, in fact, based upon certain theoretical approaches or ways of thinking. To ignore these ways is to plunge ahead in the dark. The theoretic foundation of guidance must be understood before guidance can be effectively used. The old sage Vitruvius expressed it excellently by writing that "He who is theoretic as well as practical is therefore doubly armed: able not only to prove the propriety of his design, but equally so to carry it into execution."

Techniques of Guidance

Techniques of guidance may be defined as *organized methods for helping in the appraisal and subsequent adjustment of the individual*. They can not in themselves provide a complete solution to the problems of guidance. Too often, techniques of guidance have tended to become a "bag of tricks" dragged in on every occasion. When used without proper appreciation of the problems involved, such procedures have seldom proved of value.

Guidance techniques, of course, will vary with the particular phase of guidance in use. For instance, the individual interview may be employed not only as a therapeutic technique by the clinical psychologist, but also as a procedure whereby a teacher can receive and impart certain information in his classroom. In terms of their diversified uses techniques of guidance may be classified as (1) techniques of understanding, (2) techniques of prevention, and (3) techniques of adjustment. All three kinds are interrelated and may be used singly or in combination depending upon the specific circumstances.

Techniques of guidance should be used always in terms of the larger goals. Guidance of the individual implies the individual's

understanding of and cooperation in the use of techniques. For example, the immediate purpose of mechanical-aptitude tests is to measure fitness for certain tasks; the over-all purpose is adjustment of the individual in terms of more effective living. Guidance techniques are "two-way" constructions and involve mutual trust and confidence on the part of both guidance worker and those whom he is seeking to help.

Limitations of Guidance

All along there has been a tendency on the part of some lay people and even teachers and other professionally trained persons to fail to recognize that guidance, counseling, and pupil personnel services in general are limited in what they can do. Guidance services are not "cure-alls" for everything. Some of the factors which must be recognized in defining the limitations of guidance are:

1. Guidance has been and still is limited by lack of personnel and facilities as well as time to provide many of the services expected of it. Any fair appraisal of future prospects can not be too optimistic. More effective means for stretching what time and facilities are available will have to be found or improvised.

2. Guidance is not a panacea for all educational problems. The scope of guidance must be described to the public in realistic terms. "Send the child to the counselor" has too often been employed as if it were an incantation possessing magical powers. Guidance is but *one* of the means education employs for personalizing its services and goals. It is unrealistic to believe that guidance can or should solve all the problems of education.

3. The area of psychological testing has been in many instances oversold. Testing instruments employed by a skilled worker are both useful and necessary. In the hands of someone untrained in this complex area, however, they may even become dangerous. A worker, it is true, may be only as good as his tools, but this implies knowledge of those tools, and even more important, of their purpose.

4. Conditions of living are too complex for any one person to resolve the problems of another in any simple setting, or for that matter, even in a whole series of therapeutic situations. Guidance is able to furnish much of the insight needed for resolving the individual's problems but such insight needs to be used in terms of the over-all effort.

5. Guidance, as interpreted in the school, is presently unable to

provide the professional services required for the pupil who has severe problems of maladjustment. These and like problems come both logically and legally within the province of outside agencies and personnel designed to cope with them. Grave harm may result from treatment of the individual by those unqualified to do so. Guidance workers serve an extremely useful function when they become able to recognize the extreme cases and cooperate with the specialists in dealing with them.

6. Guidance services have thus far not been organized or administered effectively on a wide enough level. The choice of workers to set up this organization and to administer the program is an especially perplexing problem. The heterogeneity of the American school will, inevitably, make for a broad selection of programs and personnel. Guidance services can only operate effectively as they are given definite and workable plans of organization and administrative support. Too often it must be said guidance has been a case of "the blind leading the blind." At this time the lack of planning still limits the guidance program in many areas of our country.

Summary of Concepts Basic to the Guidance Function

Any program of education, whether expressed through guidance or otherwise, requires certain concepts, certain ways of thinking to give it meaning and purpose. Guidance programs are built upon a foundation of such concepts, a foundation which becomes implicit in the educational process. Guidance theory must precede guidance practice. The philosophy of guidance is part of the philosophy of education and also the philosophy of the free society out of which both functions emerge. The following considerations appear to be requisite to the guidance effort.

1. Guidance Has Goals, Derived from the Needs and Values of a Democratic Community and Nation. The goals of the culture generally, and of the local community specifically, form the basic foundations upon which the philosophy of guidance is based. Any examination of guidance practices will bear out this viewpoint. Guidance was given its major impetus by the needs of a society transformed by industrial advancement. When traditional methods of education proved no longer adequate to deal with the problem, other methods were brought in to meet the pressing demands made by industry and business generally. Educational opportunity for every citizen has

become a cherished belief in America. It is this belief which guidance seeks to translate into reality.

2. Guidance Respects Individual Worth, Dignity, and Variation. The central point of a philosophy of guidance in the American school is respect for the worth and dignity of each individual—respect for his right to grow and to make choices according to his level of maturity or acceptance of responsibility (with opportunities provided to help him make wise choices). Guidance must, therefore, provide personal opportunities for growth and development even for those individuals who, for one reason or another, vary from the accepted norms.

A democratically oriented guidance program, however, will recognize the uniqueness of each individual, and will make certain that each one is provided with the opportunity to learn to whatever limits are possible for him. There is in education, which is a systematized institution, the necessity for observing sufficient uniformity of procedure to make possible mutual understanding and agreement. This need brings up the problem of how to define individualism and where and how to provide for it within the framework of social acceptability. Guidance makes possible a program of education in which both individuality and conformity, within the context of equality, not only are recognized but are encouraged. There is a direct connection between individual welfare and the purposes of democracy.⁶

3. Guidance (Pupil Personnel Work) Is a Recognized Area of Education. While guidance concepts and practices are integral parts of the educational effort, they are also unique and definable. Education is considered as the total process whereby the young are prepared for future roles in our democracy. Guidance or pupil personnel work provides certain services and functions which are distinct and differentiated from the other two areas of the educative process: instruction and administration-leadership. Guidance has been found to function most effectively when its purposes and specialized areas are understood and respected by those involved in its progress.

4. Guidance Employs Scientific Methods for Studying Behavior. Guidance, in line with the tenets of science, generally assumes that

⁶ In a recent work Thorpe and Schmuller write: "In past eras and societies in which there was little regard for the individual, concern with personality was naturally submerged. Recent human problems and more democratic governments have produced an increasing interest in the individual and his role in society." [L. P. Thorpe and A. M. Schmuller, *Personality—An Interdisciplinary Approach* (Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1958), p. 3.]

behavior is based upon a cause-and-effect relationship. Through the method of science guidance seeks to understand and predict individual behavior. In so doing, individual differences are emphasized and the person remains the focus of interest. Research has demonstrated that behavior is subject to analysis and prediction.

Scientific method is the key instrument of the guidance effort. While there are no categorical definitions of either science or its method, its rationale is unquestioned: It represents an effort to derive objectively and systematically facts concerning the human being and the world in which he functions. Research in guidance is an effort to appraise the individual so that understanding and predicting his behavior becomes possible.

To plan a course of action for a pupil or to urge him to do so without proper analysis of adequate data is both unscientific and unprofessional.

5. Guidance Is Fundamentally a Preventive (Developmental) Function.

The emphasis in guidance, as has already been pointed out more than once, is prevention of impairment to maturation rather than correction after such impairment has already taken place. This principle can not be too warmly defended in any area of education. Untold resources in human effort and money have been used up because help was "too little and too late." Both scientific and social disciplines have demonstrated that it is possible to so guide human conduct that breakdown is prevented. Coincidentally, no area of medicine is now more honored than preventive medicine. If good preventive guidance principles are practiced, optimum development of the individual will result.

6. Guidance Helps the Individual Improve, Grow, and Mature.

Guidance, as does all of education, assumes that behavior is modifiable; that each person can grow, change, or improve in the direction of increased maturity. Were this not so, that is, if behavior could not be modified, education would have no reason for its own existence. Education, by definition, is concerned with change. Guidance is a means whereby such change can take place on a personal level. Research demonstrates how enriched environments have even in some cases helped raise I.Q. scores.⁷ Guidance emphasizes the establish-

⁷ Beth L. Wellman, "The Effect of Pre-School Attendance upon the I.Q.," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. I (1932), pp. 48-69.

———, "Iowa Studies on the Effects of Schooling," *Thirty-ninth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, 1940, Part II, pp. 377-399.

ment of those conditions which provide room for optimum growth and development. Guidance believes that each individual, according to his level of maturity, is responsible for his own behavior.

7. Guidance Is Dependent upon Leadership. Strong administrative leadership is essential to insure proper guidance services and their integration in the total educational process. There is no substitute for administrators who not only know how but why and where guidance is moving.

Since a serious shortage presumably will exist for some time, the short-term answer is in guidance-minded administration. School and college administrators are fortunately beginning to insist on more adequate training for personnel workers as well as for themselves. The cooperative nature of guidance programs points up the need for leaders who have won the respect of their colleagues by virtue of their competence and attitudes. The good administrator, dependent as he is upon the support of his staff, will thus see that they too must be effectively trained for their jobs.

8. Guidance Is Part of a Team Effort. Guidance is not a matter of any one service or any one specialist. Its purposes are definitely the concern of everyone involved with rearing the child. The services which guidance provides may be the concern of certain specialists, but the guidance effort requires the help of many others. The school, for example, can do little without the cooperation of the home, and both institutions are part of the community from which they draw their values. Hence, there is a need for warm-hearted cooperation by all those taking part in guidance.

Failure to win popular support and understanding of common problems is evidence that the purposes of guidance have not been properly disseminated. A guidance program stands or falls on the degree of cooperation it achieves on the part of those concerned.

9. Guidance Services Are Professional. The higher the standards a given profession maintains, the more likely becomes the possibility that its purposes will be fulfilled. In guidance, especially in the key area of counseling, there still exists a regrettable lack of skilled workers.

An attempt at "professionalizing" the teacher, however, does not give the teacher the competency of a specialist. A teacher may be considered to have contributed a fair share to the guidance program when he is aware of the purposes of guidance and of how these pur-

poses fit in with classroom programs of instruction. It is clear enough that the most competent of teachers will neither have the time nor training needed to become a guidance specialist. If a teacher, however, realizes his own limitations he is thereby in a better position to make the maximum use of his own skill and training as well as the services of the guidance specialist.

That educational problems are growing more acute every day has become a public cliché. Help is needed for the normal child as well as the growing number of maladjusted. If hopes for professionalizing guidance services are to be realized, standards of competence must be raised and enforced. To make such competencies desirable salaries will have to be raised all over the nation. In this way capable people will be attracted to a field which seemingly has been in confusion with respect to standards and salary levels.

Summary

This chapter has served to introduce the subject of guidance generally. It has emphasized that education is an agency of society designed to carry out the values of that society. Guidance in education is now considered as an instrument by which the growth and development of the child is given fullest expression. Democracy implies, in fact insists upon, educational opportunities for everyone. This carries with it a corollary belief, namely, that every pupil can be educated, given the proper conditions. These proper conditions guidance seeks to insure.

A guidance program, in modern education, presupposes the existence of certain beliefs—philosophical, psychological, sociological, etc.—which underlie it. It becomes necessary, then, to examine these beliefs and to clarify them for all those concerned with the problems so that the guidance program does not stray too far from the goals set up by a democratic society.

Guidance is the most adequate and flexible means so far found for providing education with the refining services it needs. It has often proved the most efficient means of guiding individual pupils, giving direction to education, and saving both time and effort in important areas of instruction. Further, it is an effective method of integrating school and community in a common purpose; it also provides the teacher with a means for revising her own procedures. The aim of guidance, generally, is through accepted procedures to assist each pupil in the school to find the life situation most suitable to his abili-

ties, feelings, and needs, and to guarantee this placement through as effective an educational program as is possible.

Suggested Problems

1. Look through a current newspaper and make a list of all stories or articles that deal with problems or trends in modern society. Discuss the implications these problems have for our system of education.

2. In what sense may guidance be said to embrace all of education?

3. Make a list of some of the problems you remember having faced while in junior and senior high school. Did you ask for help in solving any of these problems? To whom did you go for help?

4. How many of the pupil personnel services listed in your text were available in the public schools you attended? Which of these services were particularly helpful to you? Why?

5. During this semester keep a clipping file of all current articles you can find pertaining to education. You will be using these articles from time to time.

6. Differentiate between education and guidance, guidance and counseling, and counseling and teaching.

7. In what way is guidance both a philosophy and a process?

Suggested Readings

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Chapter 2

Background to Guidance in Education

The previous chapter held that guidance (or pupil personnel work) represents both a point of view and an organized service. This second chapter examines the background out of which guidance developed and from which it draws its meaning. Movements in education, as those in other social institutions, have not arisen like "Minerva fully armed" out of the head of any particular theoretician. These movements develop actually through the needs and problems of the society itself. Through understanding what these needs and problems are comes the insight so necessary to the conduct of guidance services.

Guidance and the Democratic Concept

A basic principle in guidance is concern with the worth and dignity of the individual. Thus far it has been the democratic society which has led all others in emphasizing this concern for the individual. Gosnell writes of the American society as follows:

Foreign observers of American civilization have been impressed with the tremendous influence that the ideals expressed in the Declaration of Independence have upon American everyday life, vague as these ideals may be. American optimism, enterprise, sense of fair play, faith in its destiny, and high moral ideals may in part be attributed to the democratic creed. There

are plenty of evidences that many Americans fail to live up to the democratic ideals, but this situation does not mean that they repudiate them as goals toward which they should strive.¹

In spite of differences which do exist there are, then, certain goals in our society upon which there may be found more or less common agreement. Some of these are: equal treatment before the law, equality of economic opportunity, political equality with respect to suffrage, and social equality as expressed at least through its ideals.

The democratic society is characterized as one which is ever striving to realize its ideals. As such it encourages human relationships that are based on mutual trust and respect. Further, democracy is seen as a system for making decisions on policy based on the consent of all those concerned. It has proved one of the most effective social forms by which a group may organize itself and make formal decisions concerned with the rights of even the least of its citizens.

Educational Freedom in a Democracy

In the democratic society, the pressures upon education are neither rigid nor confining. Parents, for example, are permitted to send their children to schools of their own choosing. The large number of private and parochial schools and the number of their vocal adherents are proof that American school policy has been flexible and accommodating. Above all other considerations, however, our country has been a leader in the matter of *local* control of our educational institutions. Decentralization has been traditionally emphasized and whenever there has been Federal aid given, such aid has not been accompanied by any absolute injunctions as to its local disposition. Government funds, at least up until now, have generally been used to implement local programs, not influence them unduly.

Responsibility of Education. The mission of education is underscored in terms of the importance of the individual in American society. Our society is one in which there is general agreement that it is possible to build a better place in which to live and that education is one of the primary means to achieve this purpose. There is great faith here in such a possibility if it is approached in the right spirit and the right way. This, of course, presupposes the fulfillment of one

¹ J. F. Gosnell, *Democracy, The Threshold of Freedom* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1948), p. 5.

condition, namely, that the school possess the right philosophy and practices to insure the education of free men for a free society.

In a government where many decisions and choices are made by majority vote, it is important that adequate information be made available to the citizenry. It is hardly sufficient for the people to be potentially intelligent; they must be armed with a sufficient amount of facts and experiences if they are to take a fair share in the responsibilities attendant upon a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people."

Guidance an Age-Old Problem

The *organized* guidance program is of modern origin.² Throughout the centuries, however, thinkers have been concerned with this problem. For example, in Plato's discourse on the ideal state, the *Republic*, there are found many allusions to the importance of fitting the citizen to his future task. According to this most famous of Greek philosophers a state such as he envisioned would rest upon the "diversity of natures" among men, a condition which called for a division of the necessary labor required in the maintenance of government. In fact, Plato insisted that any ordered government was unthinkable without useful and competent workers upon which it could depend. The following passage indicates his now-classic views on the subject:

. . . the shoemaker was not allowed by us to be a husbandman, or a weaver, or a builder, in order that we might have our shoes well made; but to him and to every other worker was assigned one work for which he was by nature fitted, and at that he was to continue working all his life long and at no other; he was not to let opportunities slip, and then he would become a good workman. Now nothing can be more important than that the work should be well done No tools will make a skilled workman, . . . nor be of any use to him who has not learned how to handle them, and has never bestowed any attention upon them.³

² Traxler describes the recent origin of organized guidance as follows: "Among animals and in primitive social orders, the guidance of youth is taken care of by the parents. Even in a fairly advanced civilization which maintains a certain homogeneity, the home can continue to be the chief guidance agency. Thus, in the largely agrarian society which obtained in the United States until approximately 1900, there was no keenly felt need for guidance other than that provided by the family." A. E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945), p. 1.

³ *The Dialogues of Plato* (New York: Horace Liveright, 1927), Book II, p. 291. Transl. by Benjamin Jowett.

Man's concern with guiding the young is indeed an ancient one. From primitive tribe to modern industrial society survival and "guidance" have gone hand-in-hand. How most effectively to match human capacity with work opportunities has never posed the problem it does in our own time. Our present-day society, with its many alternatives, its high degree of specialization, and its near-fantastic pace of technological changes makes unprecedented demands upon all of us. Living today requires the willingness to adjust to change, to react positively and intelligently to our mores, our laws, and our inventions. To help fit the citizen for such a task places a tremendous burden upon all our social agencies, particularly our system of education. An examination of the American school follows.

The American School

The American school has been a conservative institution from its earliest beginnings, a fact which most surveys of American history will substantiate. From the time of the founding of Harvard College in 1636, education was construed as a means of disciplining the "faculties of the mind." The maxim that seemed to dominate pedagogy was "Spare the rod and spoil the child." The successful teacher was usually judged by his harshness. Formal discipline became the key to any training of the young.

The quiet, obedient child was considered as evidence that the instructor knew how to administer the lash. Any undue activity on the part of some poor unfortunate scholar was quickly, and doubtlessly severely, repressed. Such a situation was possible because the Puritan concept of training the child appeared to be that of eradicating the sinfulness with which each child was presumed to be endowed at birth. Repetitious application to lines of Greek, Latin, and Scripture was considered a certain means of ridding the child of any possible errors.

The child was considered inherently "bad"—a belief which still clings to much of our thinking—and was disciplined more and more. Activity was frowned upon. It is little wonder the child rebelled against such treatment. For years the American school ignored the fundamental fact of human individuality and the need for such individuality to be expressed through wholesome school experiences.

The early American school was a reflection of its society, a society characterized by simplicity in living and the "frontier spirit." Farming was the major pursuit and the opportunities to begin farming were

only limited by the time taken to travel to new land, land which then must have appeared without end.

The Changing Society. The War of 1812, according to the historians, marked the end of the lingering colonial period and the beginning of a new era. The people of America trekked westward for the first time in great numbers, forsaking the relative stability of the original colonies. From England came new machinery to help this early expansion of our country.

New industries began to arise on every hand. Even farming was changed; land was being utilized in more efficient fashion. By the end of the 19th century America had made the transition from agrarian to urban-industrial society, a movement that held profound implication for education in general. Society had become complex. Gone were the land frontiers and the simple life. In their place arose giant industries, labor organizations, congested cities, in fact, all the familiar conditions which now make the burden of education so great. The problems engendered by the new technological society did, however, help produce the welfare services and trained personnel which were the forerunners of the present pupil personnel programs. The demands of the flourishing industrial society forced education into an entirely different mold. Educators were faced with the rude fact that their curricula were wholly inadequate to cope with the problem.

The Child-Centered School

The transition from classical methods of teaching to a new program of education in the present century has been neither simple nor smooth. Tradition dies hard even in the face of necessity. Fortunately during these years new insight into individual behavior has helped to revise educational practices.

The concept of improving learning through emphasis upon child activity owes much to John Dewey and his colleagues. At the end of the last century, in 1899 to be exact, there appeared the first edition of a now-classic treatise on education called *School and Society*. In this work Professor Dewey illuminated the concept of the school as a miniature society. Learning in this way becomes a means for facing the problems of life more effectively, thus bringing guidance into the picture as a dominant influence. "Learning through doing" sums up one of Dewey's major principles. But in this doing there must be conscious guidance by the teacher for the child to cope with his own

problems successfully. Thus we begin to see in Dewey's formulations that which means that learning may produce a device, power, or technique to meet new situations, as well as provide knowledge.⁴

By virtue of Dewey's influence the classroom began to emphasize experiences relevant to a pupil's daily problems. Personality development became the goal of instruction rather than memory drills and learning by rote. Children were now graded according to their own capacities and not by rigid over-all standards. Teacher and pupils combined to work towards mutual progress.

Unhappily much of Dewey's philosophy was dissipated in the extreme practices which emerged as a result of his teaching. Dewey, himself, had to warn many of his followers against the folly of extremism.⁵ Since each person usually interprets what he reads or studies from his own frame of reference, resulting practices have produced many strange things. Dewey's theories—because they have enjoyed such wide currency—apparently have taken on implications they never possessed. Instruction conceived in terms of Dewey's philosophy is responsible nevertheless for two distinctive contributions to guidance: (1) it has re-emphasized the importance of the individual in the educational scheme; and (2) it has brought the concept of co-operative sharing of problems into the classroom.

Edward Lee Thorndike. About the same period (the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th) the late Professor Edward Lee Thorndike of Columbia University provided much of the laboratory techniques and evidence to substantiate Dewey's theoretical proposals. The effectiveness of activity in learning was validated in many of Thorndike's experiments. To elucidate his work, much of it original, Thorndike advanced his "bond hypothesis," an hypothesis which uses experience to account for learning. This theory assumes that learning is a process of the bond or connection made between stimulus (e.g., a lesson to be learned) and response (e.g., the child's reaction to this lesson). In other words, if the experiences of the child are experienced under what Thorndike called "satisfying" conditions, learning will take place.

Because of Dewey's and Thorndike's contributions the American school was re-directed in terms of the child's development rather than

⁴ W. H. Burton, "The Problem-Solving Technique: I, *Educational Method*, Vol. 14 (1934-1935), pp. 189-195.

⁵ See J. Dewey, *Experience and Education*. In this work Dewey made a strong plea for directed learning after the attacks made upon his philosophy. He emphasized the need for the teacher to become a confidante and guide throughout the pupil's activities.

those of the subject matter he learns. Another hypothesis of Thorndike's, the "law of effect," was instrumental in this general re-orientation. This law holds that all things being equal, the immediate consequences of a connection (between stimulus and response) can work back upon that connection to re-inforce it. A "satisfying state of affairs" must, however, immediately follow the connection and belong to it. Thus learning, if it is to endure as part of the child's "habit-pattern" must be geared to the child's active feelings. This means that a pupil must be interested in his task and feel some satisfaction from accomplishing it. Obviously such a concept implies conscious direction by the teacher since all experiences are not equally challenging. Knowledge for its own sake has lost much of its dominating influence because of this newer concept of learning.

Dewey and Thorndike have influenced major facets of modern educational practice. Dewey's theory, as noted previously, was enhanced by the results of Thorndike's extensive research. But the views that both men expressed were forceful syntheses of their own doing. Doubtless both must have borrowed some of their foundations from the past—their thinking is in large part a product of the scientific ferment of the 19th century—but their insight was such that they helped contribute to one of the most vigorous educational doctrines of the 20th century.

The Challenge

It has now become commonplace to cite H. G. Well's statement, "Human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe." The rapidly paced events between the English historian's time and now have only served to deepen the meaning of his trenchant remark.

The hope of individual freedom in an era of rapidly rising populations could very easily be overwhelmed in nuclear, biological, or climatic warfare. Statesmen and philosophers are earnestly seeking a way in which mankind can live to enjoy the products of the new age of electronics, automation, and nuclear developments. McSwain has described the present need as follows:

In formulating a philosophy and program of education in mid-century, it is essential that reflective study and conceptual thought be focused on such observable societal factors as: (1) the rapid increase in general population and in school population; (2) the growth of productivity in industry and commerce; (3) the advent of automation with resulting changes in many occupational fields and the development of new fields of employment; (4) the increased mobility of movement among people resulting from

greater speed and greater scope in land and air transportation; (5) the use of mass media to communicate ideas, understandings, tensions and information around the globe; (6) the undeniable fact that people of the earth must learn to live in greater harmony and understanding in an age of global interdependence.⁶

Mastery of the three R's is certainly of primary importance. But such mastery does not or can not guarantee the kind of citizen needed to perpetuate the democratic society. It is now only too apparent that knowledge must also extend man's outlook in terms of his own personal growth as well as his relationships with others. In short, the citizen of a democracy requires not only educated competence in his work but, as many writers have already urged, competence in human relations.

To broaden the challenge to educators there exist the characteristics of the population at mid-century: (1) the changing structure and function of the American family, which some writers have called the breakdown of the family; (2) the reduction of infant mortality and increase of longevity which has produced a society with a greater variety of needs, including the senior citizens; (3) the apparent increase of juvenile delinquency; (4) the serious problem of mental illness with an incidence as high as 10 per cent of our population; and (5) stratified social classes.

Changing practices in American education have centered largely around the rapid upsurge of pupil enrollment. Two of the more obvious factors at the elementary level which increased attendance were compulsory education and reduction of child labor. The increased demands of commercial and social life have necessitated more and more knowledge on the part of the average citizen. The high school attendance increased 25 times between 1890 and 1940. But it did not stop there. The Bureau of Census data revealed that there were 30,700,000 children between 5 and 17 years in 1950. On the basis of birth rates and other factors it is estimated that by 1965 there will be 48,100,000 children in the same age bracket. This means that for every 100 pupils in the nation's classrooms in 1950, there will be 136 in 1965. Thus the term most descriptive of our education about this period and for the foreseeable future is mass education. Where originally the elementary school was the common school now the high school has been added. This same trend, i.e., education for the mass of people, is now affecting the junior and community colleges. Inevitably it will also extend into the universities.

⁶ E. T. McSwain, "A Look Ahead," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XXXVII (January 1956), pp. 189-192.

Because of these new demands and dissatisfaction with educational methods in general the public has subjected the schools in recent years to widespread criticism and attack. Public education has become, as the saying goes, very public indeed. That some good has come out of this interrogation of the schools by the laymen is evident in the increased analysis of their previous methods and goals by those in the schools. Professional educators have come to recognize that many of their debates were submerged in theoretical considerations and that in principle there was surprising consensus. Whereas there were many splinter movements in professional groups, more and more, in modern education, these groups are now coordinating their efforts in far-reaching multi-disciplinary studies of the significant issues confronting all of us. Illustrative of this has been the White House Conference. The need for lay-professional relations has become more evident and productive. The task, however, is far from accomplished.

The basic questions facing education at mid-century were presented at the White House Conference in 1955:

- a. What shall the schools accomplish?
- b. How can we organize our schools more efficiently and economically?
- c. What are our school building needs?
- d. How can we get enough good teachers and keep them?
- e. How can we finance our schools—build and operate them?
- f. How can we obtain a continuing interest in education?

The immediate need is that of providing facilities and adequate personnel to man these facilities. Human values are, however, of greatest concern. Thus the White House Conference asserted:

The talent of each child is to be sought out and developed to the fullest. Each weakness is to be studied and, so far as possible, corrected. This is truly a majestic ideal, and an astonishingly new one. Schools of that kind have never been provided for more than a small fraction of mankind.

The schools have become a major tool for creating a nation without rigid class barriers. It is primarily the schools which allow no man's failure to prevent the success of his son.

Our schools are asked to teach skills currently needed by the nation, but never at the expense of the individual. This policy of encouraging each child to develop his individual talents will be of the greatest use to the nation, for in the long run, if no talent is wasted in our land, no skill will be lacking.⁷

To accomplish the above goals there will be required greater expansion of professional services—teaching, as well as pupil personnel

⁷ Reported by Paul J. Misner, "The New School," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XXXVII (January 1956), p. 183.

services. It is also evident that education must meet the challenge of providing not only special training for vocational competence but also a general education for the citizen in a complex, interdependent, and rapidly changing world.

Growth of Guidance and Related Institutions

Vocational Guidance. The beginning of the present century was characterized by a lack of training programs to meet the ever-growing needs of the citizen in an industrial society. One of those rare and far-sighted educators who discerned how wide-reaching in its implications was the need for organized vocational services was Frank Parsons of Boston.

Parsons had long decried the fact that in those early years young people coming into Boston from the farms—as well as those already in the city—were not given adequate training for available jobs. Out of his work and interest in the problem came the first “vocational bureau” established in 1908.⁸ During this period the term “vocational guidance” was first employed to designate the help given young people in training for and finding jobs. Parsons died before his now-classic work, *Choosing A Vocation*, was published in 1909. In this volume he set forth the ideas, methods, and materials which have now become commonplace in guidance programs. Because of his pioneering Parsons has been acclaimed as the “father of guidance.” It is interesting to speculate on what might have happened if guidance had been sponsored as a community rather than a school activity. In this respect, Parsons himself foresaw the need for closer school-community cooperation, emphasizing it in much of his writing.

Following Parson’s initial emphasis the vocational guidance movement expanded in many directions. Eli Weaver, at about the same time, introduced vocational guidance in the New York Schools, and many other cities followed suit. By 1910, the interest generated by the problems of occupational selection and preparation was intense enough to bring about a national conference on vocational guidance. This first such conference was held, fittingly, in Parson’s home city of Boston. In 1913 at the third conference, at Grand Rapids, the National Vocational Guidance Association was organized. In 1933, during the dark days of the depression, the National Occupational Con-

⁸ John M. Brewer, *History of Vocational Guidance* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942), Chap. I.

ference was established in order to promote the cause of vocational guidance in the community. This organization did yeoman service during its relatively short life of six years.

Other organizations, designed for the same purpose as the previous ones described here, were established over the years with varying degrees of success. The majority of these combined in 1950 to form the American Personnel and Guidance Association, which includes the following divisions: I. American College Personnel Association, founded in 1924; II. National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers, founded in 1940; III. National Vocational Guidance Association, founded in 1913; IV. Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education, founded in 1931; V. American School Counselor Association, 1953; and VI. Rehabilitation Counseling, 1957. The American Personnel and Guidance Association is accepted generally as the representative voice of guidance workers. Its official organ is *The Personnel and Guidance Journal*. This journal was originally founded in 1924 by the National Vocational Guidance Association, and was called *Occupations*.

Federal Support

In 1939, the Occupational Information and Guidance Service was established in the Vocational Education Division of the U.S. Office of Education. In 1951 the service was reorganized into the Guidance and Counseling Branch, and subsequently re-established as the Guidance and Student Personnel Section. More help was made possible through the U.S. Employment Service and the Department of Labor. Probably the most extensive vocational-counseling operation supported by the government has been that provided to millions of veterans under Public Laws 16, 346, and, for Korean "war" veterans, 550 and 894. It is here that vocational counseling is reputed to have reached its highest efficiency, and professional standards have been required for the counselors who are labeled Counseling Psychologists (Vocational).

Federal support of guidance and counseling programs was authorized under the National Defense Education Act of 1958, wherein interested states could, on a matching basis, receive funds for strengthening their guidance services.⁹ Future indications support the thesis of more and more Federal expenditures for like programs. Such Con-

⁹ See Appendix C for text of sections of the Act directly related to guidance.

gressional legislation as the Smith-Hughes, George-Deen, and George-Barden Acts have done much to expand and promote vocational education throughout America.

The U.S. Office of Education through its branches has helped encourage the establishment of bureaus (or departments) of guidance within the different state departments of education. Such bureaus publish guidance materials as well as help organize guidance services and foster research.

Psychological Testing Movement

Studies in individual differences began towards the last of the 19th century in Germany with Wundt, in England with Galton, and in the United States with Cattell. It was not until 1905, however, that Binet, in France, published his first scale of tests which, although crude, did measure "intelligence." Goddard, Kuhlman, Whipple, and especially Terman gave impetus to the testing movement in the United States. The Binet-Simon Scale was revised in 1916 by Terman. Another revision of the Stanford Binet was made in 1937 by Terman and Merrill. To meet a need for a more adequate individual test for adults, the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale appeared in 1939.

Group mental testing grew out of the imperative needs of World War I to classify adequately the great numbers of recruits flooding into army camps. Yerkes headed a special committee of the American Psychological Association formed to meet this problem of classification. Out of their pioneering emerged the now-notable Army Alpha and Beta tests, the results of which have been widely studied and quoted.

Other men and other tests added to the growing advancement in the *quantification* of human characteristics and behavior. Woodworth in personality testing, Strong and Kuder in "interest" testing, Sea-shore, Stenquist, and Paterson in aptitude testing, and Rorschach, Morgan, and Murray in projective testing are now part of the history of the advancement of psychological testing.

The testing movement has helped make possible the knowledge so essential to man's quest to understand how he functions as he does. The psychological test is now an indispensable tool in selecting individuals for particular tasks in virtually every area of our society. It has become a welcome ally in the diagnosis of mental illness and, wherever possible, its prevention. Direction and encouragement of the measurement movement, has been given by the American Psy-

chological Association, an organization which has done so much to establish effective standards for testing.

School Psychology. Two major factors are responsible for the school psychologist: (1) the need for specialists to administer and interpret results of mental tests and (2) the child-study programs. Cutts¹⁰ lists 1915 as the approximate time when Dr. Arnold Gesell was chosen to conduct the testing program in the schools of Connecticut. The first Child Study Bureau was organized in Chicago, followed by many other study programs concerned with the problem of how children develop and mature effectively. The relationship of these bureaus with school programs has encouraged the school psychologists not only to expand testing, but also to improve the diagnosis and therapy of those students with educational problems. School psychologists have also disclosed new insight into the problem of both the retarded and the gifted child. An important stride forward in clarifying "the functions, qualifications and training of school psychologists,"¹¹ was made at the Thayer Conference held in August 1954, at West Point, New York. In a subsequent chapter the qualifications and duties of the school psychologist are discussed in detail.¹²

Mental Hygiene

In 1908 a former inmate of an asylum for the mentally ill wrote so impressive an account of his tragic experiences that important sections of the American public were spurred to action. In his autobiography, *A Mind That Found Itself*, Clifford W. Beers submitted his thesis that reforms were long overdue in the care and treatment of those suffering from mental illness. Mindful of his own tragedy and of the abuses still rampant in mental institutions Beers pleaded for "the spreading of a common-sense gospel of right thinking in order to bring about right living."¹³ Beer's dramatic call for help did not go unheeded, for in 1909 The National Committee of Mental Hygiene was founded. Some four decades later (1951) this initial organization combined

¹⁰ Norma E. Cutts, "Development of a Certification Procedure for School Psychologists," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, Vol. 7 (1943), pp. 45-49.

¹¹ Norma E. Cutts (Ed.), *School Psychologists at Mid-Century*, (Washington: American Psychological Association, 1955).

¹² See Chapter 3.

¹³ C. W. Beers, *A Mind That Found Itself*, (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1908), p. 295.

with the National Health Foundation and the Psychiatric Foundation to form the National Association for Mental Health. This association has taken a leading role in sponsoring educational and organizational services for the promotion of mental health. Such help has done much to aid the school in handling extreme cases of maladjustment. It needs to be added here that mental health is one of the greatest problems, not only of our schools, but of our times.

Child-Guidance Clinics

The first psychological clinic was established in 1896 at the University of Pennsylvania. This clinic was initially concerned with mentally and emotionally retarded children but later its influence spread into the areas of general education. Many consider the real beginning of modern child-guidance clinics, however, to have originated with Healy in 1909 when he organized the Chicago Juvenile Psychopathic Institute. Although such institutions have greatly expanded in scope (serving adults as well as children) they have come to be the main source of reference for children with extreme problems of maladjustment.

Again, it is these institutions which have done so much in the area of mental health in the schools, assisting both children and parents to recognize and understand their problems. The services of these institutions will be needed increasingly in the future with the literally overwhelming impact of new learners in our schools. Everything should be done to help expand their facilities and services.

Social Work

Although charity in one form or another has existed in all societies (the Bible holds charity as the noblest of virtues) it was not until a comparatively recent date that professional workers were brought in to handle the problem. In the United States the first training programs for social workers originated in Philadelphia and New York at the beginning of the present century.

Social work is now a recognized profession ranking with others of its kind in scope and importance. New concepts of social behavior (disclosed by psychology and psychiatry) have made possible more skillful techniques for dealing with people in a social structure that is constantly undergoing change. With respect to education, social

work in the school has helped highlight the guidance program. In some places, because of the social worker, added emphasis has been given to needed reforms as well as to ways of effecting these reforms. Nevertheless, much remains to be done in this area also. Pearman and Burrows write:

In a community where the school is already organized to serve the needs of the whole child, the school social worker can immediately begin work. Such schools however, are few; there is much promotional work to be done. In those schools where a repressive philosophy has prevailed the enlightened administrator has a difficult task. An archaic system with a poor mental hygiene history cannot be transformed immediately into a thoroughly up-to-date system conducive to the promotion of good mental health. In the school where such an unfavorable atmosphere prevails, the social worker and the school administrator must expend much effort in properly orienting the school staff, the students, and the community to a school social work program.¹¹

Health Education

The present school health program is an outgrowth of the increased public concern with matters of health which took place toward the close of the 19th century. There is little evidence of any such concern, however (particularly in the schools) for the health and welfare of the individual prior to 1880. Urban living with its attendant problems of sanitation (e.g., the danger of epidemics due to congestion, sewage disposal, etc.) forced the public into some recognition of the problem. Perhaps the greatest influence upon the public health program has been the amazing advance of all areas of medicine, particularly preventive medicine.

Many of the early developments in health education were imported from the European continent, then much more advanced in this area than was the United States. However, once on its way, health education expanded in every direction. For example between the years 1880 and 1890 every state in the Union required instruction upon the adverse effects of alcohol and narcotics. In 1885 the first director of physical education was appointed in Kansas City, Missouri. The first home economics program came in 1887, followed by the first regular medical inspection, established in Boston in 1894. The year 1902 saw the first school nurse in practice in New York City, the same city which appointed the first school dentist in 1903 and which organized

¹¹ J. R. Pearman and A. H. Burrows, *Social Services in the School* (Washington: Public Affairs Press), p. 90. See the whole book, especially Chap. VI.

the first program of school lunches in 1910.¹⁵ Encouraged by the Child Health Organization (1918-1922), the American Child Health Association (dissolved in 1935), and the National Education Association and American Medical Association through their Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, school health programs have moved ahead rapidly since those early days. A recent publication of the Joint Committee states:

Every school should establish workable policies, preferably in written form, to assure every pupil of (1) healthful school living conditions, (2) appropriate health and safety education, (3) effective school health services, (4) healthful physical education, and (5) teachers and other school personnel who are themselves healthy and who have up-to-date preparation for their special health responsibilities. Sound policies for the education and care of exceptional children (gifted and handicapped) are equally essential.¹⁶

Health education has made many significant contributions to guidance. Medical specialists and health educators have helped develop a coordinated program by which the optimum development of all school children is facilitated. Much of today's pupil personnel services are centralized in the work of the school nurse, school health coordinator, dentist, physician, and the psychiatrist.

Guidance in the Elementary School

Organized guidance services at the elementary level are of very recent origin. It may come as a surprise to many but most, if not all, the textbooks on the subject have appeared only since 1950. There are several valid reasons, however, why guidance was so long in coming to the elementary school—despite its great need in that area.

First, guidance began as "vocational guidance" and it seemed more applicable at the secondary level because of this emphasis. And next, since in the elementary school children were assigned to only one classroom teacher it was felt that the teacher would be able to furnish what personal care was necessary. Finally, administrators have been able to manipulate work loads on the secondary level so as to provide guidance services much more easily than has been the case on the elementary level.

¹⁵ C. E. Turner, *School Health and Health Education*, (St. Louis: The C. V. Mosby Co., 1952), pp. 38-46.

¹⁶ The National Committee on School Health Policies, *Suggested School Health Policies* (The Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association, 1956), p. 1.

The newer point of view in guidance emphasizes services for all pupils, not only those who are maladjusted. Hence it is only logical that guidance should function as early as possible at the elementary level. Such conditions as mass education, increased variety of stimuli, and similar problems have made it difficult for the classroom teacher to meet the situation effectively. Elementary teachers, nevertheless, have warned that it is at this level that preventive guidance must be practiced if the intensity of the problem is to be reduced at the secondary level.

Although organized guidance services have been limited, other developments in educational theory and practice have helped make the personnel point of view a reality in many elementary schools. Among these are: the adaptation of the curriculum to levels of development, child-study programs, and more effective mental-hygiene practices.

Emerging Trends in Guidance

Basic to our conceptions of guidance is the acceptance of an overall picture of education as a means for developing the future citizen. Education has generally been presented, or rather treated, as a series of isolated phases, a fact which is understandable in the light of our educational development. It needs to be considered in terms of the progress of the society from which it receives its direction. The future holds much promise for this point of view.

Traxler sees the following trends emerging from present theory and practice in guidance:

1. Improved training of guidance workers.
2. Increased faculty participation and cooperation between guidance specialists and classroom teachers.
3. More orderly accumulation and recording of a variety of information concerning the individual.
4. Closer cooperation of the guidance services with the home and other community agencies.
5. Increased use of objective measures in guidance programs.
6. Differentiated prediction of success on the basis of test batteries that yield comparable scores in broad areas.
7. Wider interest in the use of improved techniques in the appraisal of personal qualities of pupils in the treatment of maladjustment.
8. Acceptance of a middle-of-the-road approach with respect to directive and non-directive guidance.
9. Further recognition of relationship between remedial work and guidance.

10. More use of improved case-study techniques for more effective understanding of pupils and for in-service training of teachers."

Social Implications of Guidance

Mankind has had many problems but never any as profound as those emerging out of the Atomic Age. It seems but yesterday that the word "atom" was literally seared upon the consciousness of a world still at war. Despite the fact that it came upon us as a power of destruction, it has brought in its wake limitless opportunities for mankind's progress.

In his history man has learned how to control fire and floods. He has even turned such threats to his existence into useful channels. The power of fire and water have been harnessed to turn his machines instead of destroying him. The accomplishment of such feats has led to the creation of modern civilization. Mankind now faces a similar—if immensely more complicated—problem. But science has already proved that the power of the atom can be transformed into a force for human good. The sweeping advances in medicine alone have demonstrated the truth of the previous statement.

Nevertheless the problem still remains: How are we going to put the power of the atom to use without suffering from its harmful effects? There is no doubt now that the fire of the atom can destroy us if we do not find the wisdom to control it.

One of the ways to cope with the problem is through dissemination of information about the implications which the atom holds in every area of life. A scientist writes:

The atom, the cell, the star—the mind of modern man has invaded all of these. This new knowledge has brought new beauty into life, new satisfaction of understanding, and new power over nature. But it also brought great and unavoidable problems. Many of these are economic, social, political, and moral problems; but they are also inescapably scientific problems. Thus, these are not isolated problems for a few queer specialists. They are problems for every citizen.¹⁷

All of us need to know—and be guided in our knowledge—about the purposes and uses which our government has made of atomic research.

¹⁷ Arthur E. Traxler, *School Review*, Vol. 58 (1950), pp. 14-23.

¹⁸ Warren Weaver, "Science and the Citizen," *Science*, Vol. 126 (December 1957), pp. 1225-1229.

See also J. Bronowski, "Science and Human Values," *Universities Quarterly* Vol. 10, No. 3 (1956), p. 247.

In addition we need to understand the role of the atom in our national defense. Ignorance can lead to fear and unpreparedness with respect to atomic power. Adequate information is a potent weapon both in peace and in times of crisis.

Education is more closely allied to the needs of society than was traditionally supposed. The concept of the school as an ivory tower has been weakened because of its lack of attention to the social pressures which brought about education in the first place. Those who see the school as a social institution are quick to point out the harmful effects to the school if it persists in isolation from society. As Yeager writes, "It should be clear . . . that the roots of the present educational pattern lie deep in the past. Education has always been a community force through the years, and many of the traditional characteristics of our school system remain." He concludes by saying, "Since change is characteristic of a democratic society, education as an institution must constantly meet the challenges of an interested and well-meaning, if not always sound, community expression toward education."¹⁹

Early educators emphasized the desirability of the "good" student studying in an atmosphere removed from the cares and considerations of the outside world. Such education stands for learning which is deliberately removed from the problems of society. The result has been to overlook the personal and social implications and purposes of the school, as if learning took place in a realm all its own. It has taken time and effort to emphasize the fact that education is the concern of all of society and not just the school itself.

Emphasis upon the individual, to conclude the present discussion, remains a bold concept in a world faced with more and more regimentation. Such emphasis calls for a unity of approach in which vital issues not only are treated in the community but are introduced into the curriculum of the school. Everyone in education thus needs to be better informed on matters which affect our welfare.

Summary

The guidance program of today draws added meaning when considered against the background of the past. The need for guidance grew out of the affairs and problems of the American society. Revolutionary changes in our living have now brought about unprecedented

¹⁹ W. A. Yeager, *School-Community Relations* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1951), p. 59.

demands upon the individual. These demands on both the individual and the community have made programs of guidance and related services necessary. Traditional education can no longer provide in itself the assistance now so gravely needed by each individual. Mass education has made the need for specialized guidance services even more pressing. The chapters following will demonstrate guidance practices which already are in effect or those which have been suggested by various leaders in the field.

Suggested Problems

1. What is meant by the statement, "By the end of the 19th century, American society had become complex?"
2. Why did so many social-welfare movements and organizations seem to develop at the beginning of the 20th century? In what ways are conditions different today?
3. From your clipping file, begin making a list of current criticisms or public education. Form an opinion in regard to each criticism and be prepared to defend your opinion.
4. In what ways have the following people influenced the guidance movement? a. Dewey. b. Thorndike. c. Parsons. d. Binet.
5. Thinking in terms of the historical background of the guidance movement, discuss how the concept of "guidance for all pupils" has evolved.
6. What guidance services in your community receive federal subsidy? Are there federal funds available for services which your schools do not have?
7. If there is a child-guidance clinic in your community, find out approximately how long a person must wait in order to get help for a child needing psychiatric assistance. (Is there a waiting list? Under what circumstances may a child get immediate help?)

Suggested Readings

- Berkson, I. S., *The Ideal and the Community*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958.
- Burns, James M., and Jack W. Peltason, *Government By the People*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1957.
- Hall, R. K., and J. A. Lawerys (Eds.), *The Yearbook of Education: Guidance and Counseling*. New York: World Book Co., 1955.
- The President's Committee on Education Beyond High School, *Education Beyond High School*. Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1957.
- Whitehead, A. N., *Adventures of Ideas*. New York: The MacMillan Co., 1956.
- See also the references cited in the footnotes.

Chapter 3

The Structure of Guidance: Organization and Administration

The integration of guidance depends first of all upon an effective plan of organization from which to draw its principles and practices. Common values are strengthened if they are implemented by a recognizable structure. On the other hand even common orientation is hardly likely to be effective if it remains merely a theory or a state of mind. Any program gains power proportional to its definite structuring. If the values of guidance are ever to be transmitted to those whom it is seeking to help, it will be because these values have been expressed in a program which everyone can recognize and respect. Accordingly, this chapter will treat the problem of organizing and administering guidance services (defined in Chapter 1) both as they exist and in terms of desired objectives.

Background to the Problem

The problem of organizing guidance services has so far proved a difficult one. The heterogeneity of the American population, the emphasis upon local control of education are but two of the more prominent factors contributing to the difficulty of the task. It certainly is neither necessary nor practical to draw up any one or all-inclusive plan of organization. Guidance by its very nature must be

flexible and adaptable to the particular situation in which it is expected to operate. Nevertheless, there are certain broad principles which are applicable to any proposed program. Guidance, as has already been stated, must have a recognizable structure in order to be efficient. Administrative personnel are needed to provide leadership and inspiration. The details of any program can be left to the local situation but that guidance must be housed in a more or less definite structure is now obvious.

Before discussing some of the broad concepts in organizing guidance for service it may be helpful to review briefly some practices in the elementary and secondary schools which relate to the need and provision for guidance.

Elementary Education. In the schools providing training from kindergarten through sixth grade (and in most of those continuing through the eighth grade) the children are given a prescribed course of training. There are few, if any, electives. The pupils come into contact with but one teacher. There is more involved, however, in the elementary school than just preparing pupils for high school. Because of this, pupil personnel services are and have been employed as means for helping both the child and teacher in the learning process. Improved teaching methods and carefully planned curriculums have been instituted to meet the challenge. Some of the practices which have emerged from the elementary school as a result of this new approach are as follows: (1) the curriculum has been re-designed in terms of individual development rather than on restrictive standards of achievement; (2) the pupil's energies are being directed into socially acceptable ways of behaving; (3) mental-hygiene practices are now part of classroom procedure; (4) parent-teacher relationships are being strengthened in many areas; (5) the child is being helped in the development of initiative and imagination; (6) the pupil with special problems (i.e. the gifted, the physically or mentally handicapped individuals) is now being given instruction designed to meet those problems. No longer are success or failure in subject-matter the supreme arbiters of a child's future. The aim, indeed, is to make certain that the child does learn what needs to be learned but not in such a fashion that his progress as a person is impeded.

Secondary Education. While substantially the same problems exist in the junior and senior high schools there have been some noteworthy attempts to adapt the curriculum to the needs of the pupils. Nevertheless the problems incident to preparing the pupil for getting a job

persist. To many, guidance must be, for all intents and purposes, vocational guidance. And it must be admitted, in all fairness, that the vocational aspects of guidance are a central issue of the entire effort. But the scope of vocational guidance in the secondary school needs to be broadened in terms of the student's over-all fitness for a job. Many jobs require much more than mere proficiency at a designated task. Getting along with others, satisfaction in one's work are necessary items for success in one's vocation.

The situation which exists in most high schools today, however, is not conducive to the kind of vocational guidance mentioned above. The high school counselor's time is taken up with the elective system, whereby the pupil is permitted to select a course of study himself, a course which it is hoped will fit him for his future occupation. "Programming" with its hundreds of short interviews and endless stacks of records has become the predominant task of the counselor, the result inevitably becoming an oversimplified approach to guidance. Very little time is left to deal adequately with the many other factors involved in proper vocational guidance.

Another characteristic of the high school which has tended to create problems for counselors is that of subject-centered teaching. The pupil changes classrooms each hour that he may learn from different subject specialists. Thus the teacher, subject, in fact the pupil's whole course of study tends to suffer from isolation. When, however, subject specialists are assisted through guidance services to better understand the pupils whom they are instructing, the problems incident to departmentalization are greatly reduced.

The Issues Involved in Organizational Planning

Roeber, Smith, and Erickson have laid down the basis for a plan of organization as follows:

1. Any service, whether new or old, needs the acceptance and leadership of the school administrator.
2. The success of a service depends upon a state of readiness of the school staff to accept, contribute to, and utilize the service.
3. The objectives of any service have to be clearly defined.
4. The development of a service has to evolve from existing services and be adapted to the unique circumstances inherent in any given setting.
5. A service has to be developed in harmony with the total educational program of the school.¹

¹ E. C. Roeber, G. E. Smith, and C. E. Erickson, *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955), pp. 26-28.

The above considerations could be translated into the following questions, questions which need to be answered in the process of initiating or reorganizing a guidance program in terms of an over-all effort.

1. What leadership will be available to get behind the guidance program? This must be answered in terms of teachers, guidance workers, administrators, school-board members and community leaders. Will they work together?

2. What services are now available? This means within the school and in the community.

3. What are the needs, problems, and characteristics of the pupils which justify a guidance program?

4. What is to be accomplished by the initiation or improvement of guidance services?

5. What specific services should be included? By whom will they be supervised?

6. How will increased services be financed?

7. What are the standards or recommendations of the experts?

8. What provisions are being made for perpetuating the services after they have been organized?

9. What available research or experience justifies the existence of guidance services?

Leadership. In all of these considerations and suggestions it is important to stress that there cannot be a substitute for intelligent and courageous leadership. Such leadership will be, by its very nature, imaginative, tactful, and will have the vision of the worth of the individual always before it. Such leadership, again, will coordinate, integrate, and re-inforce the program through the strengths of all combined rather than through any domination of the program. There is no indispensable human being in a group effort. Everyone is a potential force in the program. No one can be omitted.

Faculty Participation. The success or failure of a particular organizational plan will depend very definitely upon faculty recognition of the need for guidance services in their school. The classroom teacher's cooperation is the indispensable link in the administration of guidance. Teachers have to understand what is to be done and the means to implement any necessary work, and must themselves have a

willingness to proceed with the task at hand. As Bruce strongly puts it, "If the . . . instructors form a group concerned in modifying or evaluating procedures, their attack upon a common problem becomes a means of mutual understanding. Clarification comes through concerted action when democratic processes are maintained in the deliberations."² Orientation of the faculty is a prerequisite to the effective organization and administration of any guidance program.

School-Community Public Relations. No educational system can function in isolation from its community. To put it in another way, all phases of education are influenced by, and in turn, influence the community which surrounds them. It is clear enough that not only the school is in the community, *it is an essential part of it*. From this consideration it follows that the organization of the guidance program needs to be based upon the fact that the school and community have identical purposes. If guidance has done one thing well it is that of focusing attention on school-and-community interaction, an interaction which gives added impetus to the guidance program.

A good administrator is *ipso facto* a successful public-relations worker. To quote: ". . . members of the community need to have an active part in the overall guidance program. How much a part they have is left to the decision of the administrator, but participation is a vital factor in desirable public relations."³

Public relations is not only an effective but a desirable means for establishing understanding between school and community. Through the students, the teachers, the various media of communications (i.e., the newspapers, radio, television, etc.) the community comes to understand, and what is more, perhaps, appreciate the problems and objectives of the schools within their midst. A good public-relations program will initiate and keep alive intelligent discussions on vital current issues. The following are five basic assumptions which, according to Hamrin, undergird the public-relations program: "(1) Directed time and attention must be given to the program; (2) public relations must have some centralization; (3) the public-relations program must be continuous; (4) the program must secure participation

² W. F. Bruce, "The Relations of Educational Psychology with General Psychology," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 40 (1949), pp. 261-266.

³ S. A. Hamrin, *Initiating and Administering Guidance Services*, (Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Co., 1953), p. 62.

of all persons who are affected by it; and (5) continuous evaluation of what is being done must be provided."⁴

Members of the guidance committee are the logical group for the expression of school policy. The kind of news for school and community is, perhaps, most effectively transmitted by someone designed expressly for the job, someone who consults with the committee on its release. Such a policy, however, need not be a rigid one since some schools may operate more effectively with their own ideas for disseminating news about school activities. In the past, the tendency of the public-relations worker seems to have veered towards a policy of convincing rather than bringing understanding to the public. This kind of narrow interpretation of public relations has become decidedly unrealistic in view of today's problems, problems which encompass the welfare of all of us. Public relations is a means for bringing school and community into closer relationship, not primarily for promoting some favored project. The community needs to understand and support education in our complex and troubled times. This task will take hard work and diligent planning since, "... complacency can early spell disaster . . . especially with respect to publicity and public relations. The success of the guidance program depends upon effective interpersonal relationships. Ignorance and misunderstandings breed suspicion and rejection. A guidance program cannot grow or survive in such an atmosphere. A continuing plan for publicity is essential to the long-range success of . . . the guidance services."⁵

Organizing for Group Guidance

The advent of "mass education" is a phenomenon for which it appears little or no provision has been made by our school systems. At the very time when more and varied skills are required the facilities

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 64.

Note: In this connection it should be noted how important an emphasis is being placed upon public relations by industry. Harlan and Scott write: "Today it is important that virtually every industry, every business, every businessman, anyone seeking favorable reaction utilize the principles of good public relations. The bigger the enterprise, the more important public relations, for it has a bearing on practically every division of the organization's existence, certainly those dealing with employees, communities, stock-holders, dealers, consumers, suppliers and other 'publics'." G. Harlan and A. Scott, *Contemporary Public Relations* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955), p. 1.

⁵ E. C. Roeber, G. E. Smith, and C. E. Erickson, *op. cit.*, p. 246.

of education are least able to cope with a heavier burden than ever before in our history. Oversized classes, half-day sessions, partially qualified teachers are all sad evidence of the problem of educating a record number of children. This brings up the need for organizing procedures for handling the problem more effectively, namely, the technique of group guidance. A complete chapter has been set aside for the exploration of group techniques. For the present the concern is with an introduction to the subject in terms of its organization.

Stated in brief, group guidance is a means for treating with groups of students in terms of their individual problems. Group guidance has already proved itself in many areas as an economical and time-saving procedure. Through group guidance, the individual student is helped to appreciate his own problems by sharing with others who are in equal difficulties. The problem thus becomes a common one (e.g., a problem associated with adolescence, home work, etc.) through mutual discussion leading to an exchange of opinions and practical suggestions.

Group guidance is a continuous process since problems of common interest persist in daily living. Group sharing of the problem does not imply any easy solution. As a technique, however, for dealing with problems group guidance does lend itself to the process of individual guidance. It has now become obvious that the organization of any guidance program will also have to include plans for the inclusion of group guidance as a technique of instruction.

A realistic approach to the problems of the future will focus a large share of educational effort upon the improvement of methods which deal with the group. The group, it should also be kept in mind, is composed of individuals. The answer will not be a simple one since a happy balance must be struck in handling the group in such a manner that the individual is not neglected. The attack upon common problems is a definite means for including all members of a group in an educational effort. The teachers will have to find or improvise new techniques for dealing with groups. Few pupils need now be neglected whenever classes are too large to handle. Group guidance offers a means of instruction in terms of the large problems.

Student Participation. Guidance implies choices, decisions, as well as adapting to changing conditions. To make a decision of any kind suggests the need for alternatives from which the student can make his choice. Any plan of organization has to include opportunities for "decision-making" on the part of each pupil so that he is better able to make his own contribution.

To make intelligent decisions further implies the presence of proper materials and technical knowledge in classroom instruction. Tangible information and substantial practice must be offered in choosing alternatives. Intelligent thinking forms the basis of good citizenship. And such thinking, in turn, emerges from rational selection and application of different alternatives.

When each pupil is able to choose wisely a major goal of guidance has been realized. The choice of one's life work, for example, becomes a successful experience only if the student is aware of other job possibilities and his own abilities and interests in relation to these.

The extent of actual student participation in the planning stages will, of course, depend upon the school concerned. Student needs will serve as one of the major bases for planning. To make student participation as effective as possible student organizations (and their teachers) will have to be consulted and their ideas included in the planning, their cooperation being a necessary ingredient of the successful guidance program.

Temporary Guidance Committee

The organization of the guidance program requires certain preliminary measures before application. One of these measures is that of forming a committee to initiate aims and procedures by which to guide the process of organization itself.

Though there exist several ways of forming a committee (appointment by the principal is the most familiar method) in guidance programs it is generally agreed that the administrator will have to call for volunteers. A small number of volunteers—the number will depend upon the size of the school—should continue to guide the formation of the program until a permanent committee is chosen. Seven or eight members are usually considered as the limit in size.

The administrator should serve on the temporary committee if requested to do so by the members, or if there is no other person trained in administration available. Temporary committees can do much to lay the groundwork for the conditions necessary for success in organization.

Effectiveness of application helps direct and supplement the guidance program. Specialists should be called in or consulted whenever possible. These specialists can help appraise the program in terms not only of the present but of the future as well. The community must also be brought into the considerations of the pre-organizational

committee since it will later play a decisive role in guidance affairs.

The temporary committee lays down the foundations of an organizational program but because the guidance program involves years of continuous study the services of a permanent organization will eventually be required. The temporary committee can then either make up the permanent committee or assist those who have been selected for the job. An effective temporary committee can smooth the transition into a permanent committee and help make it function more effectively in the future.

Guidance Workers: The Team Concept

Success in any endeavor presupposes the willing cooperation of all concerned. Nowhere is this more evident than in the planning and administration of the guidance effort. Guidance is a chain the loss of any one link having an adverse effect on its strength. There is no "star" performer on the guidance team. Every member must make his own contribution a star performance, so to speak. Only then can guidance truly function.

Administrators. The duties and responsibilities of the administrator are many and varied. The following are adapted from a comprehensive list drawn up by Zeran and Jones:

1. Administrative
 - a. Makes adequate provision in budget for pupil personnel services.
 - b. Maintains cumulative-record system.
2. Organizational
 - a. Recognizes need for guidance.
 - b. Makes staff aware of values of guidance.
 - c. Coordinates guidance program with members of staff.
 - d. Provides pupil personnel committee.
 - e. Coordinates and uses community resources.
 - f. Gives desirable publicity.
3. Research

Surveys needs of pupils and services available.
4. Personnel
 - a. Selects staff.
 - b. Offer inducements to counselors for improvement of knowledge and skills.
5. Scheduling
 - a. Arranges for pupils to have counseling time.
 - b. Allows for adequate time for counselors.
6. Supplies

Provides for quarters, equipment, and supplies.

7. Curricular
 - a. Evaluates and revises curriculum.
 - b. Offers reasonable activity programs.
8. In-service training
9. Evaluation⁶

Teachers. Within the broader meaning of guidance, teachers are guidance workers. Many times in their own work they have duties which overlap with those of the counselor and with those of the administrator. This fact, however, does not make them counselors or administrators in the full sense of those terms. Teachers make their own contributions in the classroom to the guidance program. They are part of the same team joining administrators and pupil personnel specialists in the task of assisting individuals to become increasingly mature and productive members of society. Counseling services and the services of the nurse, school psychologist, school social worker, and other related specialized personnel, however, require unique and different training from that required for teaching. As the teacher performs specialized functions pertinent to her duties, so do each of the other members of the team. Therefore, any one of these people should not be required to assume the responsibilities of anyone else unless he possesses the particular training and ability to do so. This points up the need for the other team workers to understand the role and function of the teacher so that all may work more harmoniously together. In other words, the guidance functions should enhance the teaching function. Roeber, Smith, and Erickson suggest the following definitive nature of teacher participation in the guidance services:

1. They cooperate with the school's administrator(s) and counselor in carrying out those policies which are considered essential to the proper development of guidance services.
2. They provide a psychological climate conducive to the fullest development of each pupil, thereby placing pupils at appropriate developmental tasks.
3. They integrate occupational and educational information into their respective subjects.
4. They study pupils in order to learn and record pertinent facts about interests, aptitudes, behavior patterns, goals, values, and socio-economic status of the family. These understandings become the basis for providing appropriate learning experiences for each pupil.
5. They refer pupils with adjustment and planning problems to the counselor.⁷

⁶ F. R. Zeran and G. Jones, "Responsibilities and Duties of the Administrator," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, Vol. 31 (1947), pp. 25-27.

⁷ Roeber, Smith and Erickson, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

Where no counselors or referral services are available more responsibility must be assumed by the teachers. By sharing ideas in case-conference procedure it is frequently possible to provide temporary and supportive assistance until specialized help is available. It is in the typical elementary school and the high school without counselors that the principal is required to serve as the guidance consultant.

To the above a *sixth function* should be added: They should provide continuous practice and experience in solving typical life problems, and in making choices and decisions based upon collected evidence. In other words, they should teach the pupils to learn how to think through problems on their own initiative.

School Counselor. This guidance specialist, whether serving full- or part-time, is responsible for making the guidance program sufficiently flexible and adaptable to meet most of the problems of the local situation. (Recommended training for the counselor will be presented in a later chapter.) According to a pamphlet published by the California State Department of Education, the general functions of the school counselor are:

1. Counseling individuals
 - a. Helping individuals to understand their own personal assets, liabilities, and opportunities.
 - b. Aiding individuals to develop worthwhile personal objectives and to make and carry out plans for their achievement.
 - c. Helping individuals to work out solutions for their personal, social, educational, and vocational problems.
2. Assisting teachers
 - a. Helping teachers to secure information about individuals which will be of assistance in planning and conducting class work.
 - b. Assisting teachers in the use of tests and appraisal techniques.
 - c. Assisting teachers who are responsible for group guidance activities in planning and conducting such activities.
 - d. Assisting teachers to secure and interpret guidance materials suitable for use in various class situations.
 - e. Working with teachers in the solution of problems involving individual pupils.
3. Contributing toward the general program of the school
 - a. Providing leadership in the planning and conducting of certain activities.
 - b. Participating actively in the school's curriculum development.
 - c. Bringing to the attention of the school staff effective mental hygiene techniques and procedures.
 - d. Participating in and contributing to the school's in-service training program in guidance.

4. Assisting the school in working closely with the community
 - a. Acting as a liaison agent between the school and the community in making available to students and teachers all community services and resources.
 - b. Consulting with parents concerning the problems of individual children and youth.
 - c. Interpreting the school's program, particularly the guidance program, to community groups and individual citizens.
5. Performing necessary administrative duties.⁸

School Psychologist. This specialist is usually employed by the local school district and is available on call to work in a particular school. The chief functions of the school psychologist are generally as follows:

1. Performing those tasks related to diagnosis and remediation of learning problems which may have been manifest in lack of educational or personal-social adjustment. He is skilled in the use of psychological tests for diagnosis.
2. Handling referrals to other community agencies.
3. Working with parents to improve relationships between parents and children.
4. Serving as a consultant for in-service training.
5. Providing specialized services for handicapped children.

School Nurse. The importance of the school nurse is highlighted by the fact that in most schools the nurse is the first to be hired after the regular school personnel. Counselors, psychologists, and social workers rank second to the nurse with respect to their own hiring. In many elementary schools the nurse, in fact, is the only guidance worker. At any rate she is a vital cog in the guidance machine. Her many functions include:

1. Providing information regarding the physical health of a pupil in order that teachers, parents and administrators may better understand the child.
2. Making routine inspections of pupils who are reported ill.
3. Making referrals to and assisting the school doctor.
4. Maintaining health records.
5. Making home calls where necessary.
6. Instructing the pupils in good health practices.
7. Participating as a member of the guidance team.

⁸ D. E. Kitch and W. H. McCreary, *The School Counselor: His Work and Training* [Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, Vol. XX, No. 7 (July 1951)], pp. 6-14.

School Doctor. Whether employed full- or part-time, the physician serves as a medical consultant and examines students. The school physician is more concerned with preventive than he is with therapeutic measures. Among his duties are the prescription of inoculations, advice to the nurse, and acting as a referral source. Some districts employ a *psychiatrist* who provides the necessary therapy for those pupils requiring such treatment. In addition, the psychiatrist (1) serves as a consultant whenever necessary and (2) helps set up an in-service training program coordinated with his speciality.

School Social Worker, Visiting Teacher, or Welfare Worker. All these terms apply to those personnel who serve as a liaison between the home and the school. Whenever poor school attendance, sickness, and other kindred conditions indicate that home conditions should be investigated the social worker is brought in for help and further suggestions to implement this help. The social worker provides teachers with information about child-welfare laws. He also may act for the teacher in referring pupils to community agencies.

The visiting teacher performs the duties implied by her title. To those unfortunate enough not to be able to attend school (e.g., the ill or crippled student) comes the visiting teacher. It is she who brings the schoolroom right into the home thus permitting no one to be neglected.

The welfare worker serves to connect community services with the school. The school social worker investigates problems which arise in the school as a result of home conditions. The welfare worker, on the other hand, deals with those problems of the home which may impede the child's school progress. Both the welfare worker and the school social worker are, of course, concerned with the same problem, namely, the school and the home when these are in disagreement or rather when the relationship between the two has broken down. It is the welfare worker, however, who more specifically represents the community's interest in the problem. The goal is nevertheless the same for both (as well as for the visiting teacher): the integration of home and school in terms of the community's welfare.

Guidance Committee or Council

One of the administrative devices which have developed since World War II in the guidance field is the guidance committee. In addition to many individual schools utilizing this practice, many sys-

tems such as Los Angeles City Schools have organized guidance councils at the top administrative level. Previously some schools had erred in putting only guidance people on the committee. This policy would appear self-defeating in that it hampers developing and integrating guidance philosophy and practice. The committee or council by virtue of its purpose should include representatives of professionally trained school personnel. The head guidance worker here assumes the role of executive secretary. The typical guidance committee functions as follows:

1. Assists in the appraisal of the guidance program.
2. Makes recommendations to the administration concerning the further development of guidance services.
3. Helps keep the faculty and the general public informed about the progress of the guidance program in general.
4. Participates in the planning and conducting of special guidance projects such as surveys of students' problems, occupational surveys, and similar studies which need to be made from time to time.⁹

The functions of the district guidance council are primarily the same as those of the school guidance committee in that it too is involved in policy-making as well as helping coordinate the system-wide guidance-and-personnel program. Guidance councils thus represent the evaluative phase of the guidance program. They are in the tradition of American government with its checks and balances designed to keep policy aligned with the will of the majority.

School Guidance Practices

In the hope that some brief descriptions of practices across the nation will provide both orientation for the beginning student in guidance and some answers to the problems of organizing and administering guidance for service the following outlines are presented.

Tulare County Schools (California). Philip Kearney, school psychologist, describes how welfare services are functioning in his county:

When a child in one of the Visalia schools is in trouble, not one or two, but all of the agencies of Visalia and Tulare County directly or indirectly concerned are likely to be alerted for cooperative study of the problem and for coordinated action in attempting a solution. This approach to child

⁹ "Do You Have A Guidance Committee?," *California Guidance Newsletter* (Bureau of Guidance, State Department of Education, Sacramento, California), September 1953.

welfare in the Visalia area is a recent development, brought about principally through the interest, imagination, and joint efforts of the assistant superintendent of the Visalia schools, and a member of the Visalia police department.

Representatives of all agencies in the area concerned with child welfare now meet each month to deal with such cases. Among those representatives are the county school psychologist, supervisor of child welfare and attendance, the supervisor of the Juvenile Hall school, probation officers, welfare workers, a member of the Relief Council, the principal, dean of boys and dean of girls and attendance officer of the junior high school, a school nurse, the principal and the director of the Rosenberg Project, Crowley School, a visiting teacher from the elementary schools, and the superintendent of Visalia City Schools.

In the past, school personnel and agencies dealing with the attendance and welfare of boys and girls in Visalia attempted independently to help solve the problems referred to them. The solutions reached were sometimes unsuccessful because the total picture was not available, and key factors often could not be identified. Under the present system coordination is established among all agencies, research information is drawn from all available sources and the recommended action is likely to be what is best for the child.

The team method operates as follows: Cases up for discussion are put on the agenda and presented to a committee several weeks before the meeting. Each agency accumulates and summarizes pertinent data. When a case is opened at the meeting, all the data are presented. Then, in terms of the total picture, past and present, diagnosis is attempted and a plan is projected which utilizes all possible means of adjustment. If more information is necessary, responsibility is given in a specific agency or department to obtain it. An approach is then recommended, action initiated, and follow-up progress is reported.

The group feels that the following results have been accomplished: (1) better understanding of one another's problems, (2) a closer working relationship between school, probation, and juvenile officers, the Welfare department, and associated charities, (3) elimination of any overlapping functions, (4) development of a preventive approach to youth problems wherever possible, and (5) establishment of efficient procedure for the signing of petitions and requests for custodial care of children with problems that cannot be met by the public school program.

Although still in an experimental stage, this cooperative approach has been found to be very effective in helping solve the problems of children in the Visalia schools. Already other schools in the county have recognized the advantages of collaboration, and many of them are attempting to set up teams in their own community.¹⁰

Philadelphia. In this large city school district the program is primarily directed by the director of the Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling. To expedite his work he employs several assistants.

¹⁰ P. Kearney, "Agencies Join with Schools in Child Welfare Work," *ibid.*, pp. 9-10.

Prior to the establishment of this division in Philadelphia in 1942 these special services were provided by a private social agency, the White-Williams Foundation. The transference of the services from the foundation to the schools was a cooperative and gradual one with due recognition of each other's contributions. The following brief history of this and related divisions describes the services now offered by the Division.

Health Work. At present, school physicians and nurses working in the Division of Medical Services give careful attention to the health of every school child. The Division of Physical and Health Education cooperates in many ways, including the provision of corrective gymnastic work.

Psychological Services. A psychologist was engaged in 1920 and that service was discontinued in 1922 when the Department of Special Classes was organized in the school system. This Department is now the Division of Special Education, and the 14 psychologists on the staff of this Division are at the service of the schools.

Attendance Work. In 1942 the official recognition and expansion of school counseling brought a reorganization of the attendance service, with home and school visitors in the secondary schools, as well as the district workers, confining their service to attendance problems. (Counselors also work with many attendance problems since failure to attend school regularly is, of course, recognized as a symptom of something which is not right for the pupil, either in his relationship to school, to his home, or in his adjustment to some other phase of his life. The school counselor seeks to understand the causes of failure to attend school, just as he seeks to understand the case of any other evidence of lack of adjustment.) The attendance service is gradually being centralized in district offices. The social work emphasis, which began so long ago, has permeated the entire attendance service. The long experience of the Bureau of Compulsory Education, and the experience of teacher-counselors in the secondary school, with that of the White-Williams Foundation, influenced public school officials in their decision to establish the Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling, and to give such an important place to school counseling.

The attendance service is one of the three services of the Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling.

Junior Employment Service. The White-Williams Foundation supplied a supervisor and counselors for a Junior Employment Service in 1918 and continued this service until 1925 In 1934 in accordance with a policy of as much decentralization as possible, several Junior Employment Service counselors who held the State certificate for school "guidance counselor" were transferred to senior high schools to serve as vocational counselors there.

Since 1942 there has been, except for a few schools in which home and school visitors are still a regular part of a school organization, only one such specialized worker as a regular part of the school faculty—the school counselor.

The Board of Education maintains an Employment Certificating Service. This is one of the three services of the Division of Pupil Personnel and

Counseling and is under the direction of a Special Assistant who has charge of the work which is carried on in the four Certificating Offices.

High School Scholarship Work. . . . The scholarships were made available for younger students who could not legally leave school but who, although they managed to maintain high marks, were unable to make the most of their school experience because of the pressures created by financial need. From the beginning, counseling for scholarship students was made an important part of the program.

The scholarship program is still carried by the White-Williams Foundation but the applications for scholarships are made to public school counselors who also carry the responsibility of recommending that scholarships be given, and forwarding the applications to counseling supervisors who consider any questionable applications with the Scholarship Committee of the White-Williams Foundation. The school counselors work closely with the pupils to whom scholarships are granted.

A Program of Counseling in the Secondary Schools. In May of 1942, when the Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling was established, replacing the Bureau of Compulsory Education, the school counseling program in the secondary schools was placed under its general direction, qualifications were set up by the Board of Superintendents, an examination procedure was established, and appointments of secondary school counselors were made from eligibility lists. Every secondary school now has from two to four counselors; the total number of secondary school counselors is 131, and the ratio of counselors to pupils, as of January 1953, was 639. [In 1956 it was 553.] With the decreasing ratio of pupils to counselors, with further provision by school administrators for counselors to be freed from duties other than counseling and also to provide the conditions necessary to effective counseling the counseling program in the secondary schools will continue to progress toward the goal of consistent and continued individual counseling (case work) service for all pupils who need special understanding and help in making choices, and in meeting their problems. Such a service involves close working relationships with all other members of the school faculty, with the specialized school services, with parents, and with the wide range of community social agencies and service.

School Counseling in the Elementary School. In 1941, this statement appeared as a description of the work of the elementary school counselors, "This counselor considers the whole child—his living situation, his health needs, his mental capacity and the way he feels about his difficulties. As the school social worker, she confers not only with the child but with the parents, teachers, and other adults responsible for his education and training, and together they plan how the experiences he needs may best be provided."

The professional training recommended by the White-Williams Foundation was a college degree, teaching experience, graduation from a School of Social Work, and experience in a social agency. Because of the difficulty of finding workers who had had training and experience in both teaching and social case work, teaching experience was not a requirement. Bulletin No. 6, published by the U.S. Office of Education in 1945 stated, "The level of work was so high that the influence of the White-Williams Foundation was felt throughout the country wherever there was an interest in visiting teacher work."

At present in the elementary schools of Philadelphia there are 118 (124 in 1956) counseling teachers, which is the term used at the elementary school level. The counseling teachers are full time school counselors. They are carefully selected by principals and district superintendents for the work, and the Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling was given the responsibility of developing an In-Service Training program for them. This program has consisted of class work and supervision. Seventy-five elementary schools are still without counseling service, but the Board of Superintendents anticipates the time when there will be a counseling teacher in every elementary school organization.

Cooperation with Home and School Associations. Another activity of the White-Williams Foundation was active participation in the Philadelphia County Council of Home and School Associations. From 1926-1931, the White-Williams Foundation assisted in the development and coordination of the activities of the Council.¹¹

Long Beach, California. Virginia Bailard describes the guidance program in their public schools, which serve a total population of over 300,000 people of varied backgrounds. This functional program is designed to meet the needs of the students from kindergarten through college.

Here, for instance, is Mike. Mike has been a live wire since kindergarten days, but when he enters the third grade it becomes obvious that something has gone wrong. Here he begins to throw things around the room and to kick and hit other children. He even bit the teacher the other day. No! It doesn't take him any time to make himself felt!

There are times when he crawls off and hides by himself. He cries easily—in fact, every time he feels any frustration.

Mike is quite a problem for the teacher, who has 35 others to care for—several of whom also create much disturbance.

She studies the pupil analysis sheet prepared by his former teacher, which contains such helpful data as: areas showing growth, areas needing stimulation, home situation, etc. Nothing *too* unusual here.

She notices that Mike seems starved for affection. She finds that she can quiet him best and reason with him most when she holds him close to her. He seems to respond to affection. However, even though this helps for short periods of time, Mike still runs rampant in the classroom.

The teacher asks the school counselor to come in to observe the child, for it is obvious, of course, that this child needs special help and study. Taking anecdotal notes over a period of a week on the child's behavior in various situations in the classroom and on the playground, the counselor is able to write up a pretty accurate picture of Mike's behavior. She gathers together other personal data too . . . and invites the mother to come to school.

In the conference it is revealed that the mother has been remarried—this time to a man who had a two-year-old child. The mother has had to

¹¹ Emilie Rannells, "The Development of the School Counseling Service in the Public Schools of Philadelphia," (School District of Philadelphia, mimeographed report, 1953), pp. 1-8.

punish Mike many times for being mean to the baby. She gets so tired taking care of her household and the baby that she does get irritated when Mike is so naughty. He is so difficult sometimes that she shut him up in his room. And her husband has made her feel that Mike is ruining their happiness.

No wonder she has unconsciously rejected Mike. No wonder that Mike is creating a problem in the classroom. His security is gone at home. He is fighting to maintain a place for himself. He must have attention. He must have the affection that he misses at home. His methods of getting these things have turned the children away from him. He is lashing out against a cruel world.

How to help him? After the conference with the mother, the counselor, teacher and principal decide that Mike should be referred for a thorough psychological study. All available data is gathered and noted on the referral sheet which is sent to the Office of Counseling and Psychological Services.

The psychologist studies the data. Then he talks with Mike and his mother. He feels that the school psychiatric social worker can help the mother immeasurably to gain insight into her problem with Mike. She can help her to understand and to handle better her feelings of conflict and give her help in working out a solution to her problem. In the meantime, the psychologist will use diagnostic and therapeutic measures with Mike.

The teacher works with the other children in the classroom in their relationship with this boy. She explains to them that Mike really needs their help and friendship—that if they are extra nice to him he will become a better boy.

As the mother receives help from the social worker and as Mike is given opportunity to manifest his aggressions in the psychologist's office and is being accepted more and more by the children, his behavior shows improvement. (Many times either the social worker or psychologist works with the parent, the child and the teacher without employing the aid of another worker.)

The teacher praises and encourages Mike. So do the children. It will take time, of course, but Mike has a good chance now of becoming a good citizen again.

Mike's behavior is not too uncommon. Many children manifest similar behavior though perhaps for different causes. But it is not just the hyperactive child who receives the attention of the counselors. The withdrawn, too quiet child merits attention too and is often referred for psychological study and help just as Mike was.

Preventive Guidance. But all of the counselor's time is not spent on children with problems. She is just as concerned with the others. Working closely with the principal, she is interested in all the preventive phases of guidance. Together they take great care to use the personnel data when placing youngsters in classes—making sure that they are so placed in well balanced classes as to encourage their best growth. . . .

The counselor is a help to the teacher as she serves the child. . . . She suggests ways of working with all these youngsters. . . . She prepares and distributes a copy of the pupil data sheet which contain such things as: chronological age, I.Q., results of various tests, etc. . . .

The Articulation Program. When Mike and his classmates are ready to go to junior high school, all this data will go with them and be used over and over again by junior high school counselors and teachers. . . . Much preparation is made to make the transition from elementary to junior high an easy one which will not set up tensions nor upset the little "greenies." . . .

So that parents may know more about the junior high school, elementary and junior high teachers, counselors, principals and vice-principals join forces and present a comprehensive picture to them at a special parent meeting. Sixth-graders are invited to the junior highs for a visiting day. . . .

Group Guidance. The social living teachers have the students for two hours per day and act as their guidance teachers. They teach a carefully prepared orientation unit over a period of six weeks which helps Mike and the others. . . .

. . . As they approach the ninth grade, Mike and his classmates will become more conscious of getting into the right course of study in high school to suit their abilities and needs. Their eighth grade social living teacher, together with the counselor, will aid them in working out a suitable program. . . .

The Junior High Counselor. Junior high counselors, too, are interested in the personal development of the students whom they counsel. They are available at all times to students who seek their help and to those who are referred to them by teachers. They work closely, too, with those students who receive low scholarship notices, talking through their problems, making program adjustments, seeing that parents are kept informed, etc. . . . the counselors set up a cumulative record folder for each seventh grade student . . . this record goes to senior high. . . .

From Junior to Senior High. Again, when Mike and his classmates are ready to go into the senior high school the way is made easy. Handbooks depicting life on the senior high school campus, traditions, requirements, club activities, etc., are studied in the ninth grade social living classes. Senior high school counselors visit these same classes and explain the course offerings at the senior highs. The social living teachers help the students to make out their next year's program, for they know the students better than anyone. . . .

Ninth graders' parents are invited to attend . . . so they understand the program.

A six-week unit of orientation for the new tenth-graders helps to give them a good start. Here they learn all about their school, library procedures, study habits, and any necessary rules and regulations.

Counselors see that programs are adjusted to meet the needs of the students. These counselors are available, too, to students seeking personal and vocational guidance. . . .

The placement officer, who always has the latest occupational information at his fingertips, sends out monthly bulletins to the counselors. . . . Naturally, the counselors work closely with the placement officer. Naturally, too, they work closely with the Guidance Center, where students may be sent for vocational testing. Counselors at the Center report test results and any incidental data which they pick up during the testing period to the

student's own counselor, who follows through immediately with a counseling interview.

At the Junior College Level. When Mike looks toward further schooling, he knows that descriptive bulletins of various colleges and trade schools are available in the offices of the counselors and in the libraries. Counselors are glad to talk through future training problems with Mike and their other counselees. They make sure that the counselees know of the many different types of offerings at the Long Beach City College in all three divisions—the Liberal Arts, the Business and Technical Institute, and the Adult Division. . . . Counselors are available, too, on the campuses of the Business and Technical Institute and the General Adult Division.

Summary. Every school, then, in the Long Beach Public School System, from kindergarten to college, has guidance services provided on its campus. The ratio of students per counselor averages approximately 1,350 in the elementary and about 550 in the secondary.

So that there may be unity in the guidance program, a Supervisor of Counseling and Psychological Services is employed to coordinate the guidance services in the elementary, junior high, and senior high. . . . The Dean of Student Personnel of the college serves in much the same capacity for that level. . . .

In addition, then, to the instructional program offered in the schools, Long Beach's students receive the services of school doctors, nurses, dentists, psychologists, social workers, and counselors, all working together to help these students meet life's problems with the best possible mental and physical health.¹²

Cost of Guidance Services

Very little research thus far has been conducted in the area of cost. The financing of a given program of guidance is a highly complex and individual one by the very nature of our heterogeneous school population. School systems in the United States are by tradition run on the local level. Because of this fact the cost in actual dollars and cents of a guidance program would vary with the particular school (or schools) involved.¹³

The major problem of determining cost at the present time appears to lie in the larger problem of determining what services of education can rightfully be charged to the guidance program. Guidance is

¹² Virginia Bailard, "Guidance Program in Long Beach, California," (Long Beach School District, mimeographed report, 1952), pp. 1-71.

¹³ Crosby, for example, found in an investigation of ten selected high schools in California that the cost range for guidance services varied from 1.4 per cent to 5.9 per cent of the annual (1949-50) current expenditures. The cost of student-guidance services ranged from \$6.00 to \$13.02 per unit of average daily attendance. J. Crosby, Unpublished Dissertation, University of Southern California, 1950.

still of too recent origin to be included in many estimates of needed expenditures for education. Many school systems have found it difficult to convince budget officials that their area is as important, as say, curriculum.

Any finance program of the guidance services would however have to include such items as: (1) individual analysis, (2) vocational and professional information, (3) counseling on the part of the specialist, (4) group activities classified under the heading of guidance, and (5) placement and follow-up services. In this respect the inter-relationship of all educational activities make the arrangement of cost per item difficult indeed. For example, placement and follow-up services reach into community affairs and the expense of such services is a community as well as a school matter.

Most authorities are agreed, however, that the following classes of items may correctly be charged against the guidance program: (1) salaries paid directors of programs, school counselors, social workers, psychometrists, and the like trained personnel; (2) cost of administering and scoring tests; (3) materials such as books and pamphlets brought together for use by counselors, students, and the like; (4) files, charts, and other record-keeping devices; and (5) the expenses involved in any follow-up program.

But no matter the cost, more, not less guidance services are needed. Crow and Crow write:

The per capita cost multiplied by the pupil population may appear to represent a large amount of money . . . As public opinion comes to demand, and government officials thereby are enabled to appreciate the function of guidance in education, there should result a loosening of federal, state, and community purse strings for the purpose of providing for every American whatever he may desire in the way of adequate guidance services.¹⁴

Summary

The duties and functions of the guidance program, including those of each of the guidance workers, must be defined and systematized in order to make them functional. As guidance services are both unique and specialized and also inter-related with all aspects of the school program, a great deal of planning is necessary. And, as guidance must be adapted to the particular needs of individuals and communi-

¹⁴ L. D. Crow and A. Crow, *An Introduction to Guidance* (New York: American Book Company, 1955), p. 82.

ties, it is necessary that each district and sometimes each school determine needs, establish objectives, and define the services to be performed. Essential ingredients in making guidance serve include administrative leadership; coordinated planning and effort of administrators, teachers, guidance workers, and community leaders and organizations; and qualified guidance specialists. Guidance councils and committees have evolved as excellent vehicles for stimulating and coordinating the pupil personnel services. As rapidly increasing school enrollments are placing more burdens upon school districts it is important that all monies be wisely spent. This does mean that greater consideration should be given to improved group guidance, counseling, preventive guidance, and the employment of well-qualified guidance specialists. Wise administrative leaders will be able to utilize teachers and pupil personnel specialists in accordance with the needs of the community and in accordance with the professional standards of their specialized training. Flexibility and readiness to face the challenges of each situation will have to be practiced by administrators, teachers, guidance workers, community workers, and parents. The ratio of pupils to counselors should be 250 to 1.

Suggested Problems

1. Compare the educational needs of two or more schools located in different communities near your college and show how the curricular offerings of each school are influenced by socio-cultural factors present.
2. Discuss what is meant by subject-centered teaching.
3. How good are school public relations in your community? Have recent school bond issues passed? Is there community interest in school activities? Discuss the local schools with a parent who is not an educator and see if he thinks that the schools are meeting local needs.
4. Visit a local school and find out what guidance services are available. Make a chart showing the administrative relationship of the personnel involved.
5. From an administrative point of view, how might the curriculum and the guidance program be better correlated.
6. Discuss some advantages and disadvantages of the team approach to guidance.
7. In what ways may a teacher be considered a guidance worker but not a counselor?
8. What should be the proper ratio of pupils to counselors in the senior high schools? In the elementary schools?

9. Describe the procedures for establishing a local school guidance committee.

Suggested Readings

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See also references cited in footnotes.



Part II

*Understanding
the
Individual*



Chapter 4

The Developing Personality

Each active, changing, and developing pupil within the school presents the challenge of being understood—understood by himself and understood by the teacher, counselor, nurse, principal, or parent, etc. As the young two-year-old keeps tugging at his mother until she understands the intent of his vocalizations and gives a satisfactory response, so does each person cry for appreciative understanding. Respect for each pupil as an individual presupposes some understanding of that person and the world in which he is an interacting personality. Understanding, respecting, and accepting each pupil within the framework of the busy school is the task of each guidance worker. The reason for this chapter, then, is to provide a summary of the concepts which are helpful in gaining insight into the personality of an individual. Before defining what is meant by personality, a few anecdotal reports about Randy may provide additional challenge and motivation.

CASE OF RANDY

Mr. Nathan, a fourth-grade teacher, is concerned with Randy who “in spite of his Stanford-Binet score of 121” does not complete any of his assignments. Within the classroom, Mr. Nathan reports, Randy spends the greater part of the school day in either day dreaming or creating behavior

problems by contacting his neighbors for answers to questions or just plain conversation.

The cumulative record indicates that this has been typical of Randy since he enrolled in the school two years previously. He is noted as being the class clown and a problem on the playground.

The teacher has selected the two following observations from several he had written as being representative of Randy's behavior:

"During the reading period, books were passed to the pupils by the book monitor. Randy could not wait for his book. He went directly to the monitor and grabbed one out of her hand. I went directly to Randy and in similar fashion grabbed the book out of his hand. When I asked him how he liked having someone grab from him, he gave an evasive answer, saying that the monitor always forgets to give him a book."

The second observation reported that a line had been formed to go to the library. While the class walked in line towards the library, Randy headed for a sawhorse that was placed near a puddle. He did a hurdle jump over the sawhorse and then ran to catch up with the line. (A class rule is that there should be no running in line or on grounds other than in P. E. area.)

In the teacher's words:

As the line marched into the library I called Randy aside and asked, "Why did you leave the line?"

"I did not leave the line," he replied.

"Then that wasn't you that jumped over the sawhorse?"

"No," was the immediate reply.

"Randy," I inquired, "why would I ask you if I didn't see you, which I am certain I did?"

"I don't know," he answered, shrugging his shoulders.

"One of us is mistaken, Randy. Who is it?"

There was no answer as he turned his head away.

"How can I be of any help to you, when the first reaction you have is one of distrust for me; otherwise you would know I saw you and you would own up to it; instead you try to deny something you know is wrong."

A Definition of Personality

Much of the trouble today in the social disciplines arises from the lack of a common language. While language may indeed be the "dress of thought" as the venerable Dr. Johnson put it, too often this "dress" has many different shades of meaning. This is especially true of the concept of *personality*. For on this subject men's thoughts do not coincide. Many writers use the same word (*personality*) and mean various other things. The problem of personality still awaits a common language.

At the present time there appear to be many views with which writers clothe their ideas of personality. Such a situation—bewildering as it may be to some—would not matter if these views covered the same idea, so that there existed some basic agreement as to personality.

General agreement, however, does exist in one area of personality, namely that the *integrated* person is the primary goal of the guidance program. The difficulty lies in matching this goal with adequate knowledge of the subject. Thus far there is no such situation. This unusual stage of affairs, while perhaps unavoidable in view of present conditions, is hardly conducive to progress. It is only too obvious that goals for personality integration are without real meaning unless there is agreement as to the nature of personality itself.

Fortunately, enough evidence has survived from the research on personality development to offer a practical basis for guidance procedures. This evidence is centered in what can be *observed* and *measured* of the individual's behavior. According to a leader in the field of personality research, Raymond B. Cattell, personality can not be defined in any other way but through a method which permits "prediction of what a person will do in a given situation."¹ This means that regardless of any other considerations, behavior does present a valid clue to personality appraisal. Parenthetically, a person's habit patterns constitute much of his behavior. Prediction is mainly based upon the study of an individual's habitual ways of behaving.

In this definition then the study of personality concerns itself with, "a range of behavior extending from the individual's political and religious views to the way he digests his food."² McClelland, who has also studied personality development extensively, holds substantially the same view as he writes that, "*Personality is a theoretical interpretation derived from all a person's behavior.*"³

No matter how else one may consider personality, it is nonetheless true that as yet any practical approach to the problem must center around that which can be observed of the individual. No one can deny that behavior is as yet our only workable clue to personality. A guidance program is literally forced to deal with conduct at each step of the individual's development. On this point, Witkin's⁴ ex-

¹ R. B. Cattell, *Personality, A Systematic Theoretical and Factual Study* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950), p. 3.

² *Loc. cit.*

³ D. C. McClelland, *Personality* (New York: William Sloane Associates, 1951), p. 69.

⁴ H. A. Witkin and others, *Personality Through Perception* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954).

tensive experimentation has demonstrated that in psychological functioning there is an active and purposeful agent (the person) equipped with distinctive ways of responding to situations. It is these responses upon which he and his colleagues have based their views of personality.

To accept a definition of personality based upon the individual's behavior for practical purposes does not imply, however, that other considerations of personality development are not equally valid. Indeed, there is much to be said for a view of personality that is centralized in seeking out the "substance" or the unique structure which is presumed as underlying each individual's distinctiveness. However, no one has discovered thus far how to judge a person more effectively than by his actions. A definition of personality in terms of behavior is, however, especially appropriate for a guidance program which seeks as precise measurement as is possible of all facets of the individual's development.

With this, at least realistic, concept of the development of personality in mind, a view of behavior in line with the democratic ethos becomes possible. Democratic government moves upon certain expected activities of its members, activities that are largely fostered in our schools. The preservation of our form of social organization depends upon a definite kind of person, a person who understands and stands ready to defend its governing principles. Carr has summed up this relationship of personality to democracy as follows:

Certain premises are accepted concerning the nature of man and the goals of life. Logical argument is then used to prove that democracy is the soundest method by which to govern human affairs. As modern psychology has thrown new light upon men, this traditional case for democracy has been reinforced. The democratic process gives the individual a sense that he is wanted, that his membership in the group is prized, that his point of view is respected and carries weight. He participates in the group effort, his voice influences the selection of the group's leaders and the making of social policy. Thus his sense of satisfaction is deepened; his sense of frustration lessened. The individual becomes a healthier being and society itself is thereby strengthened.⁵

It will be seen how guiding the development of personality is accomplished in terms of stated objectives of conditions of our associated life, namely, democracy. As Fromm⁶ has so clearly indicated,

⁵ R. K. Carr and others, *American Democracy in Theory and Practice* (New York: Rinehart and Company, 1951), p. 25.

⁶ Erich Fromm, *The Sane Society* (New York: Rinehart and Company, 1955).

the individual must realize the nature of his society and what his role should be not only in defending but also in improving it.

In order, then, for the guidance worker to help towards the development of the integrated personality, it is clear that he must first understand the nature of the individual as he functions in his society. The knowledge from many areas of empirical investigation that personality is subject to modification enables education—particularly the teacher in the classroom—to play a more significant role than heretofore was believed possible in guidance.

The Self-Concept

The assessment of personality involves another consideration which must be included in the observation of behavior, namely, the way in which the individual sees himself. The *self* has been defined as the person's conscious view of himself as distinct from his environment. This view of himself will also color every judgment, every consideration of other people and events by the individual.

Further, even if one accepts the notion of personality as the "sum total of the individual's behavior" one is still confronted with this concept of self. Every person tends to measure the external world through his own yardstick, a yardstick composed of the perception he has of himself. Thus an individual may be able to conceive of his own existence as a physical being and yet not see how he fits into his particular environment. Such inability to adjust to one's environment very often leads to personality disorganization because then the individual begins to live in a world of his own making—a world divorced from reality.

Put as simply as possible the external world appears different to each human being because of this unique "organization" called the self. To illustrate how this self-concept operates, think of how often witnesses will differ about an accident, for example, which all have seen take place. Courts of law are often baffled by the discrepancies found in even two accounts of the same occurrence. There is real wisdom in the enduring example of the "six blind men of Indostan," who when asked to describe an elephant by touch alone gave six different descriptions.

The essential consideration to remember is that while conduct may form the basis of our personality appraisal, it is also correct that this conduct is shaped by the individual's way of perceiving himself and,

through this perception of self, the world. If, for example, a child has been led to believe at home that misbehavior will be rewarded, then he will perceive the classroom as an arena where he must misbehave. On the other hand, the child who is adequately disciplined at home will tend to see the classroom as a place where lawful authority is to be obeyed.

To carry the illustration further, sickness can color one's perspective of self and the world to the point where it may cause severe maladjustment. Psychoses and neuroses occur when the self-concept is detached from reality. For example, dwelling for too long upon what he believes himself to be, one may come to consider himself a veritable Napoleon. Adjustment is a matter of seeing oneself and the world as they really are and not out of focus. Thus classroom experiences must be based upon realities in the sense that even fantasies and fairy tales are explained in their true perspective.

The self-concept further emphasizes the fact that in any judgment of personality the "whole person" must always be considered. This simply means that while conduct must serve as the basis of our measurement and prediction, there yet exists a "composite of this conduct" which is called the self. To use the German philosopher Immanuel Kant's illustrative phrase the person is a *thing-in-itself* (*ding an sich*) which makes individual conduct recognizable. As one writer sees it, each person "has a particular dynamic configuration of action patterns, which is his personality."⁷

In recent years wide attention has been given to the self-concept, particularly by those workers who espouse the client-centered technique in counseling.⁸ That the self-concept has much to offer in personality appraisal is evidenced in the fact of the behaviorist's recognizing its validity in the sense that personality may be observed in a variety of situations with consistent results. It is this consistency which is stamped by the concept of one's self and of the world.

The aim of the guidance worker, it follows, must be to appraise this self-concept, this "frame of reference" of the individual, and see whether it is not a distorted one. Since development and correction result mainly from self-help the importance of understanding how to cope with this self-concept is apparent. In the positive sense, which has herein been called developmental guidance, it is necessary to provide those healthy experiences which will be productive of a realistic concept of self.

⁷ J. S. Slotkin, *Personality Development* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952), p. 279.

⁸ See Chapter 11.

Growth and Development

Guidance is now recognized as a means whereby the vital processes of *growth* and *development* are studied and facilitated. Indeed, few phases of guidance, in fact of all education, have received as much attention in recent years as that which has been focused upon growth and development. Parents and educators, as well as people in medicine and the allied professions, are concerned with determining the rate and rhythm of development. This concern with ways and means to facilitate growth and development occupies much of the literature in guidance.

Growth may be defined as a process which covers *the changes in the size of the organism and of its different parts*. Development refers to both *the rate and rhythm at which growth takes place*. It is, however, possible for growth and development to be unequal. As an example of this, there is the long-legged gangling adolescent with the underdeveloped torso. Such an individual has grown but not yet fully developed. Again, development may take place but not growth, as in the individual who has not attained his full height but yet has a well-developed torso.

The phenomena associated with physical growth have engaged the attention of investigators for many years. While not all of the data are in, enough evidence has emerged to substantiate the belief that there exists a "general organism factor" within the individual which permits the harmonious development of all parts of the body. If this were not so, there would be many more "freaks" than there are.

The Continuity of Growth. Human growth is characterized, in general, by changes in the body in proportion or pattern; disappearance of certain features (e.g., "baby teeth"); and the addition of new features (e.g., permanent teeth, wisdom teeth, etc.). Growth is a continuous process but not necessarily a uniform one. "The body does not grow as a whole and in all directions at once," states Thompson, "each part must be considered separately."⁹

Each individual grows and develops in his own unique way, developing physical characteristics which become as integral a part of his personality as are his other attributes. That physical characteristics are considered part of the personality structure is seen in many

⁹ H. Thompson, "Physical Growth," in L. Carmichael, *Manual of Child Psychology*, 2nd ed. (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1954), p. 299.

of the pages of literature. Everyone is familiar with Shakespear's famous lines:

Let me have men about me that are fat,
Sleek-headed men and such as sleep o'night.

While perhaps such categorical statements (in poetry or otherwise) are not now wholly acceptable, there is much to be found in studying the physical development of the individual. If nothing else such study has pointed up the need for care in personality appraisal since the personality has a number of aspects, i.e., biological, cultural, social, etc., with all these aspects being considered as interdependent.

From the point of view of the self-concept, however, the physical appearances of an individual greatly influence his concept of himself. The youngster may label himself as the "ugly one," the "pretty one," the one with blotches on his face, etc. Frequently group acceptance or ostracism may be based merely upon physical appearance. There is also the fact that an individual may eliminate himself from a group because he evaluates his physical appearance (or skill) unworthy of membership. Many times such self-evaluations are erroneous and the individual may, in order to gain insight into a more realistic perception of self, require the help of a counselor.

In any appraisal of behavior, growth must be accepted as an indication of how far integration has progressed. For purposes of theoretical analysis growth has been divided into several more or less well-defined "stages," e.g., infancy, puberty, adolescence, etc. However these stages are merely convenient abstractions and not actual sections of growth having definite beginnings and endings. Growth is a ongoing process with one "stage" blending imperceptibly into the next. Which teacher, for example, can always distinguish accurately between the child and the adolescent?

What the Child Acquires before Entering School. Growth is now studied as a process involving hereditary and environmental influences both of which must be analyzed in the investigation of adjustment. The noted specialist on child growth, Dr. Gesell, has described growth as follows: "Growth is a unifying concept. It removes artificial distinctions between heredity and environment, between freedom and law, structure and function, and mind and body. Once we fully accept the fact that the child is an organism, he becomes a fragment of nature, subject to the same marvelous laws which determine the organization . . . of other living creatures. Even the mind becomes

somewhat less mysterious if we can manage to think of it as an expression of, and a product of organic growth.¹⁰

The ability to adjust, as was pointed out previously, usually is built up during early childhood, particularly in the home and the classrooms.¹¹ If these early experiences are unequal ones, or frustrating to the child, they begin to adversely affect the process of adjustment. The community, too, is the source of many of the pressures which are literally thrust upon the individual, even from infancy. These pressures for the child, however, are generally indirect ones, although there are direct influences as well (e.g., television, cinema, comics, etc.).

The development of effective adjustment and a desirable personality are thus largely dependent upon early socializing activities. A child entering kindergarten (usually about five or six years of age) already has amassed a fund of information and skills peculiarly his own. The normal child has acquired a surprising number of the more simple muscular movements upon entering school. He is usually able to run well by five years of age, skip a little, and even play with a large ball with a fair degree of coordination. In addition, the five year old has learned how to manipulate some objects (spoon, tops, etc.) and is able to clothe himself, if not completely, at least with moderate ability. The five year old is a well-marked personality recognizable already by his habits of behavior. He has a definite place in his family, a fact which strongly influences his behavior with his brothers and sisters as well as his playmates.

Children are thus distinguished by their conduct at an early age in life.¹² The movements (bodily activities) each individual makes as he functions within his environment express individuality. It is this functioning (individuality) which is his distinguishing characteristic as a person. Each of us represents a unique composition of heredity and the forces which bear upon this heredity. The crux of the situation for guidance lies in the ability to correctly influence the behavior—and the attitudes which motivate this behavior—of each individual. In the classroom individual activity furnishes the clue to adjustment.

¹⁰ A. Gesell, "The Child as an Organism," in S. C. Fisher and S. M. Gruenberg (Eds.), *Our Children* (New York: The Viking Press, 1933), pp. 29-35.

¹¹ See, for example, K. Young, *Personality and Problems of Adjustment* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1952), Part I.

¹² Shirley concluded from her own study with children that, "Each baby tends to manifest the various behavior items in approximately the same proportions from age to age. An item that is given up is replaced by another that is consistent with it. M. M. Shirley, *The First Two Years* [University of Minnesota, Institute of Child Welfare, Monograph Series, 6-8] (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1931-1933), Part II, p. 418; Part III, pp. 218-219.

Inter-relationship of Physiological and Psychological. Thinking is now regarded as a function of man's neural apparatus. "Mental" is no longer considered as detached from "physical." The term mental itself is regarded in scientific disciplines as a convenient description of the intellectual aspects of the individual as he adapts to his surroundings. This concept of the individual's behavior as a total process is of first-rank importance to education and is becoming universally recognized as such. So far this viewpoint has been so accepted that the District of Columbia Appeals Court can declare that: "The modern science of psychology does not conceive that there is a separate little man in the top of one's head called reason, whose function it is to guide another unruly little man called instinct, emotion or impulse in the way he should go."¹³

The concept of mind as a distinct entity to be regarded as separate from the body is an ancient one and emerges from the belief in "faculty" training. Following the Greek philosopher Plato's lead, educators came to regard the mind as possessing several distinct faculties, or facets (e.g., memory, will, etc.). Plato in his writing urged that music be made part of the young child's training so as to train the growing child to appreciate rhythm and harmony. Aristotle, the famous pupil of Plato, in his *Politics* also discussed at some length the place of music in the education of the Greek young. According to Aristotle, music contributes to the philosophical development of the mind. In fact, he was emphatic in his belief that music should only be taught as an aid to such development. He suggested, for example, that listening to expert musicians would be more advantageous to the mental and spiritual growth of the child than practicing some instrument himself. The Greek master thus assumed that mind (as apart from body) could be influenced by music. This certainly must appear curious today in the modern classroom where so much emphasis is put upon activity.

Psychology no longer makes any distinction between mind and body as such. Instead the focus is upon the "whole" child and his natural functioning. The process of adjustment, in itself, implies that in

¹³ *Holloway vs. United States*, 80 U.S. App. D. C. (1945).

Note: The well-known Canadian investigator Hebb also writes in this connection that modern psychology has accepted the view "... that behavior and neural functions are perfectly correlated, that one is completely caused by the other. There is no separate soul or life-force to stick a finger into the brain now and then and make neural cells do what they would not otherwise do." D. O. Hebb, *The Organization of Behavior* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1949), p. xiii.

meeting the needs of his environment, the whole organism is involved. One does not respond either mentally or physically alone. Consideration of activity will demonstrate how the individual's response includes the *total* physical and mental apparatus acting in unity.

The Need Concept

Each of us appears to have his own view of "human nature," a view we use to justify our beliefs and practices. In the school, for example, those who believe human nature to be pre-determined and unmodifiable will doubtless teach differently from those who hold that human nature can be changed.

Between these two opposing viewpoints, viz., human nature as fixed and human nature as flexible, has now emerged a middle-of-the-road view of man as a species of animal who shares with other animals certain basic needs¹⁴ that demand satisfaction if he is to survive. Thus man inherits certain "human" characteristics, but these characteristics are modifiable by education. It is generally accepted that man does differ from the other animals with respect to aesthetic and spiritual needs. (He does worship God and creates works of art.) Psychologists, as well as others, do, however, classify man's activities in terms of need reduction, or more specifically how man behaves in his efforts to meet these needs.

There is little doubt that needs influence human conduct. Personality is influenced directly, as well as indirectly, by the ways in which the individual satisfies his needs. The American Indian as a person, for example, was noted for his stoicism, his seeming indifference to pain and hardship. It must be remembered, however, how brutal existence was in those early days on our continent. Merely keeping alive and fighting off one's enemies did not permit any softness or pity. On the other hand, the patrician of the dying days of the Roman Empire had become gross and sensual in his tastes because so many luxuries were possible to him.

In a narrow but fundamental sense, then, each individual spends his

¹⁴ The famed anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski defines the concept of basic needs as "... the environmental and biological conditions which must be fulfilled for the survival of the individual and the group. Indeed, the survival both requires the maintenance of a minimum of health and vital energy necessary for the performance of cultural tasks, and for the minimum numbers necessary for the prevention of gradual depopulation." B. Malinowski, *A Scientific Theory of Culture* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1944), p. 75.

life in a struggle to satisfy (reduce) his needs—however these needs are interpreted, Gardner Murphy expresses it this way:

. . . *the ultimate elements in personality structure are the needs or tensions, and they are interrelated by means of the functional connections between regions which permit the spread of these tensions.* The result is a *tension system* whose lawful structure is expressed in terms of the relative strengths of tensions and the relative rigidity of barriers to their diffusion.¹⁵

Needs Differentiated. Personality may be realistically construed now as the aggregate of activities brought about by the impact of needs upon the organism. Different kinds and degrees of behavior emerge as the person strives to reduce his needs. The first tension of the infant upon entering this world is relieved through crying, a need underscored throughout his formative years. From birth onwards the individual eats, drinks, sleeps, works, in fact, performs the many obligations of staying alive, to satisfy his needs. In one important sense, the development of personality hinges upon effective need-reduction. The "spoiled" child, for example, seems to seek for constant attention, even to the neglect of all other considerations.

Thus the concept of need will have to be carefully analyzed by any student of personality development. To expedite our understanding, writers in the field have classified and placed needs upon a hierarchical or ascending level. According to Mathewson, for example, the need of individuals for guidance services must be considered as taking place on different levels. As he comments, "On the part of the person seeking help there may be an immediately realized need obscuring a deeper unrecognized need, which again may be an aspect of a much broader type of personal need existing in the whole life development of that and all other individuals and relating to desired and accepted social ends."¹⁶

*A Hierarchy of Needs*¹⁷

Maslow has constructed a view of needs which appears apropos to the thesis of this text. This writer holds that needs can be divided into *physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization categories*.

¹⁵ G. Murphy, *Personality: A Biosocial Approach to Origins and Structure* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947), p. 641.

¹⁶ R. H. Mathewson, *Guidance Policy and Practice* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949), p. 40.

¹⁷ A. H. Maslow, "Theory of Human Motivation," in *Twentieth Century Psychology* (New York: The Philosophical Library, 1946), pp. 22-48.

1. Physiological Needs. Primarily there exists the need to maintain physical well-being. Hunger, thirst, fatigue, sex-stress, lack of sleep, physical pain, excessive heat or cold, and the like, set up certain tensions within the individual which must be resolved if existence is to continue. Thus life is carried on wholly on the animal level if these needs are not met. The primitive peoples are examples of groups existing on this primary need level. The Industrial Revolution helped bring about a chance for leisure and thereby "higher" needs.

2. Safety Needs.¹⁸ When all of his physiological needs are met the individual appears to seek for such a place as he can feel secure. Defoe's Robinson Crusoe presents an excellent example of this kind of need. Cut off from the company of men, he builds himself a haven as would satisfy his need to feel secure. With the coming of Friday and his subsequent companionship, Crusoe has less need of this retreat. Children, especially, seek for security, as every parent and teacher should be aware. When security is not found at home or at school the individual's development is arrested.

3. Love Needs. When both physiological and safety needs are assured there then arises a longing for the care and affection of other human beings. To once more turn to a literary classic—this time Robert Louis Stevenson's *Treasure Island*—we see how intensely the marooned seaman Ben Gunn craved after human companionship. Cast ashore to exist by himself for years, his loneliness caused a complete change in his personality. The return of human beings threw him into panic since he couldn't readily re-adjust himself to the company of others.

Once the primary needs are met, the individual seeks for the friendship of others. To anyone who has experienced the feeling of loneliness, this need for a certain degree of intimacy or closeness with people requires little explanation. Loneliness can and does cause serious personality disorders. In the school the teacher should be alert to signs of this need. Lonely children are generally shy and hesitant and do not mix easily. They are quickly upset and lack the stability of those who are loved and cared for at home.

¹⁸ Two authorities on the rearing of children write that, "without a sense of security we have no safety, we have no anchorage, we have no peace. The kinds of satisfaction which bring security make us feel warm and loved. They make us feel comfortable . . . A feeling that we have a place in the world—that we belong—helps similarly in the building of security." L. E. Travis and D. W. Baruch, *Personal Problems of Everyday Life* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1941), pp. 64-65.

4. The Need for Esteem. A still higher level of need is the one in which the person seeks not only for the companionship of people but for their respect as well. Children, for example, go to extremes to win the esteem of their fellows. They take "dares" like jumping off high places when such risks would normally frighten them.

People strive to achieve prestige in job or social relationships. There appears to be a universal craving for admiration and praise. For example, among certain African tribes death is preferable to loss of prestige as a warrior. The term "face" has now become a byword in international relations. Among certain nations any amount of suffering is preferable to "losing face." Curiously enough certain delinquent acts can be laid to this "face-saving." Rather than be called a "sissy" by his gang a boy will steal, cheat, and so forth. Carried to extremes desire for esteem can lead to harmful effects.

5. The Self-actualization Need. After all the other needs have been met (or in some cases because they have not been) there remains the desire in most people for *creative* work. The accomplishment of useful tasks is the mark of this need for self-expression. Students quite often strive to express themselves in some subject area or skill and should be encouraged to do so. The desire to create something peculiarly one's own should, of course, not be confused with the type of creative work done by people of genius. The genius, as a type, is still imperfectly understood and works in a medium of his own making. However, each human does have the capacity to perform according to his own particular abilities and interests, be it carving wood or acting out some role.

According to Maslow as well as many others, then, needs are to be considered in terms of ascending levels. This view of needs seems a reasonable stepping-stone to the greater understanding of human behavior and hence personality. As Maslow sums it up, "Man is a perpetually wanting animal. Ordinarily the satisfaction of these wants is not altogether mutually exclusive, but only tends to be. The average member of our society is most often partially satisfied and partially unsatisfied in all he wants."¹⁹

Value-Systems

A fundamental aspect of the individual's goal-seeking activity is his philosophy of life, or the value-system which governs his conduct.

¹⁹ A. H. Maslow, *op. cit.*, pp. 47-48.

Examples of this are all about us. There are those persons who would never go out on the street unless they were well-dressed—at least by their own standards. To others, clothes are of little or no significance in their daily living. To many people some form of entertainment in the company of others is a virtual necessity. To still others such pursuits have no appeal. Many such examples could be given but the point need not be labored. A person's value-system tells us much about him. His goals, ideals, standards, and aspirations are all indications of what makes him behave as he does.

Values, obviously are learned. In his early years, the child generally accepts the values of the home and its immediate environs. Throughout childhood, especially during adolescence and early adulthood, he is continually developing a philosophy that seems useful to him in meeting his problems.

It is quite clear that a value-system which is integrated and realistic gives the individual a greater chance for future mental health. In the home and in the school the child needs to participate actively in the pattern of life, i.e., the value system, of those who are setting the example for him. By doing so the child will gain a basis for judging other concepts of pattern and order as he later meets them. False values instilled into the child during his formative years will tend to confuse him in his adulthood.

Values if accompanied too often with "moralizing" will tend to make the child rebellious. There are times when the young should be left alone when it comes to matters of value judgments—if the only alternative is to seek to persuade him to accept without question our own values. Alternatives do exist. Parents and teachers can set up certain values without the implication that these values must be adopted by the child. In such a context the child is more likely in his own way to analyze these values and see the necessity for living in accordance with them.

The Role of Emotion in Personality Development

An emotion (the term emotions is generally used in the same context but is designed to cover more than one emotion) appears to have two distinct aspects. First of all, there is the "inner" physical disturbance which takes place when the person is emotionally involved, a disturbance governed by that part of the nervous system called the *autonomic* nervous system. This system (i.e., the autonomic) is not subject to conscious or deliberate control by the individual. It is,

however, partially controlled by the brain, the seat of the central nervous system.

An example of emotional behavior is given as follows: A situation occurs which the individual consciously interprets as a crisis. His reaction is "emotional" but insofar as the reaction is concerned the nature of the particular emotion does not matter. That is to say "happiness," for example, as opposed to "sadness" will not cause any distinctive change in the response of the autonomic nervous system.

Thus it is that the person's awareness of an emotionally charged situation will set off the autonomic nervous system. (The system reacts similarly to any such awareness.) Physiologically it operates in the following manner: One set of the autonomic system stimulates a number of internal glands including the adrenals. The glands send powerful stimulants into the blood stream which in turn speed up the heart action, increase the rate of breathing, rush blood from the abdominal organs to the extremities, increase the number of red corpuscles in circulation, and create a general "stirred-up" state of the organism. In other words, when a situation arises which excites the individual the autonomic nervous system reacts as does a "fuel-injection system" to provide added energy for that individual to run faster, fight harder, and even love more intensely. When the reaction, however, is too strong interference with the person's other bodily processes may result, i.e., stopping of the digestive processes, and even loss of control of bowels and bladder.

This type of reaction to emotion cannot be deliberately started, nor can it be deliberately stopped once it has been started. The intensity of it and the length of the experience will depend upon the circumstances. As long as the crisis continues, the emotion is present, but when the crisis ends it will gradually subside. If the emotions are "mild" the individual's effort may be increased to the point of greater accomplishment. If, however, the "stirred-up" state is too intense in the individual he may become seriously upset, as evidenced in overwhelming fears or rages in which a loss of control over himself takes place.

The second aspect of emotion is its *expression*, manifested, for example, in laughing, crying, caressing, etc. As differentiated from the function of the autonomic nervous system, muscular control of the expression of the emotion can be learned. Learning how to control an emotion in socially acceptable ways does not, however, imply the elimination of the emotion. In fact, continuous repression of emotional reactions frequently results in severe psychological problems. On the other hand, it has been found that free expression of the

emotions in an approved manner—which has been learned—appears to give zest, vigor, and color to living. The normal individual will find satisfactory emotional release and expression in the usual course of events which take place as he goes about satisfying his basic needs. The mature individual will have learned to appropriately delay the expression of his emotions in an acceptable manner and to meet each crisis with calm judgment.

A person's basic values also appear to be related to the inner physical reactions of emotion. A pleasant feeling accompanies situations which seem to the individual to promote his important positive values. And conversely, an unpleasant feeling accompanies situations which seem to the individual to threaten his basic values. This seems to be the case even if a person's values or self-concepts are in error or contrary to the values of others. Nor is the individual emotionally depressed if the situation is misunderstood as in the cases of superstition, ignorance, prejudice, or failure to perceive the intent of another person.

Helping the individual develop a value-system which is integrated and comprehensive enough to help him meet his needs in a realistic and internally harmonized way becomes the heart of "emotional learning." Further, providing learning experiences in which the pupil is not too frequently thwarted or frustrated is the essence of preventive guidance. Research has revealed that when a person is motivated toward the attainment of his goal and is continuously thwarted he must find other ways, even though temporary, of reducing the tension.²⁰ If such tension becomes overwhelming the individual may often have recourse to anti-social behavior.

Autocorrective Behavior

The satisfaction of needs in the complex technological society of today sets up certain distinct hazards in the way of personality development. In fact so much tension accompanies our mode of life that it has given rise to the statement that the "ulcer is the wound stripe of modern civilization." Nevertheless individual needs must be met. If these needs are not reduced the organism in a way as yet not exactly known to us seeks other means to balance itself. This unusual psychological process of balance is called *autocorrectivism*.

²⁰ Kurt Lewin, *A Dynamic Theory of Personality*, translated by D. K. Adams and K. E. Zener (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1935), p. 58.

For example, when one's ambitions are thwarted, there are other ways to make up for this disappointment. The frail youth can not engage in heavy masculine activity, but he need not brood to distraction because he fails to become a varsity halfback. There are other avenues by which he can express himself and thereby maintain balance. Later on we shall deal with these "substitute" ways which help maintain psychological balance or what is considered "sanity." (Sanity is a legal term and properly comes under the jurisdiction of the courts.)²¹

The Defense Mechanisms

It is obvious, then, that in a world which presents a problem at every stage of life some "shield," some protection, is vital for a balanced personality. If such were not the case and there existed no cover against the never-ending demands which our needs engender, the individual would be constantly disturbed. The human constitution, it has been evident, is not able to withstand pressure for too long either physically or psychologically without some means of defense.

Physiological needs must be met in order for life to continue. Hence they are easily recognizable. But it is the detection of the other needs which present a problem. Few will deny that these needs must be adequately met, but how to recognize them—and deal with them—presents one of the major problems for those concerned with guidance.

Psychologists have agreed that when these other needs are not met there is an attempt to counterbalance the frustration which results. This attempt is centralized in a number of what have been characterized as *defense mechanisms*. Through these mechanisms needs are met by various means.

The defense mechanisms help the individual to make up for the lack of satisfaction in meeting his needs and should be recognized by the teacher in view of the various personality problems in the classroom. First of all, the very process of existence implies some kind of defense. This is as true of the protected child as the adult who is daily exposed to the vicissitudes of life. The needs of both merely

²¹ Modern jurisprudence has come to consider insanity as a disturbance of the person's psychological balance. In *Durham vs. United States*, 11859 U.S. App. D. C. (1954), part of the court's appraisal of the case at hand was as follows, "modern medicine . . . is reluctant to divide the mind into separate compartments—the intellect, the emotions, and the will—but looks at it as a whole and considers that insanity distorts and impairs the action of the mind as a whole."

vary as do the defense against them. Every person, to a degree, makes use of these defense mechanisms; it is only part of living to do so.

Classification of the Mechanisms. Mechanisms differ widely in their nature, and in the way in which they individually operate. They must, however, all be regarded as aids in the struggle to maintain the psychological balance required for even normal existence. A word of caution is in order here. Defense mechanisms are not "mystic" agents nor are they "forces" manipulated from without to regulate behavior. They are to be considered as a function of the organism as it adapts to the problems of existence. Just as the organism reacts in terms of maintaining the bodily processes at a normal level (*homeostasis*) so does it react to maintain the psychological processes in balance.

Adjustment mechanisms may be classified in a number of ways. One way which has proved particularly helpful is to consider the mechanisms in terms of *kind* of response to frustrating or problem-solving situations. Such a classification serves to highlight both the disturbance and the mechanism brought into play by it. This method of classification, it is true, is behavioristic but nevertheless it does provide a concrete basis for appraising a given situation.

The important factor is not so much the classification of the mechanisms but a better understanding of what they do. If we can understand what forces influence personality and how these forces operate we are in a much better position to help the individual. Defense mechanisms help give us a clue to the basic personality structure of the individual. Professor Symonds describes this view as follows: "For one who would understand an individual personality, there is nothing more important than insight into the inner forces which drive him to action . . . all behavior originates in response to urges within an individual. His frustrations and conflicts, his modes of adjustment and all of the details of daily conduct in response to certain fundamental motivating forces within him."²²

Following are five of the more important mechanisms selected for discussion: (1) forgetting reality, (2) distorting reality, (3) atoning for reality, (4) retreating from reality, and (5) attacking reality.²³

²² P. M. Symonds, *Dynamic Psychology* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1949), p. 11.

²³ L. P. Thorpe, *The Psychology of Mental Health* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1950), pp. 126-151.

These modes of behavior are an indication for the observant teacher of how well the pupil is adjusting. They provide evidence for future guidance procedures.

Forgetting Reality—The Fantasy Mechanism. Whenever the realities of living become too difficult for him to handle the individual escapes into a world of fantasy and daydreams. In this make-believe world the frustrated individual apparently finds that security denied him in his daily living. In his reveries he easily gains the approval of both friends and society—approval which is obviously lacking in actual existence. Admired and befriended in imagination he now suffers no longer from disapproval and lack of friends. The failing student, for example, pictures himself the recipient of high scholastic honors. The frail student (encouraged by TV and cinema melodramas) becomes a hero in some dream episode. Carried to extreme lengths this forgetting of reality can lead to severe maladjustment (e.g., schizophrenia).

Distorting Reality—The Mechanism of Rationalization. The term rationalization carries different meanings but as commonly used, refers to the tendency to give plausible (but incorrect) reasons for inconsistent or undesirable behavior. It is one of the most familiar and convenient of the defense mechanisms which operate to maintain psychological integrity. Conformity to the rules and conventions of a society literally force the individual into a certain course of conduct. Failure or inability to conform to these social standards must be “explained” by the individual in order for him to feel secure. Thus sham and even outright lying are resorted to when the individual does something considered contrary to the prevailing moral code.

Failure in an area of personal striving also brings about rationalization. The actor, for example, who does not impress the critics believes they are incapable of judging real drama (doubtless as the criticized actor expresses it). The ballplayer who fails to hit for a period of time blames the weather, or the unfair tactics of the pitcher and umpire. In short, to rationalize in the sense of maintaining personality balance, is to blame falsely other people or other conditions for one's own failures.

Students often blame the teacher for their own inability to grasp a lesson or skill. The mechanism of rationalization thus protects the individual from the harsh necessity of acknowledging his own weaknesses. Certainly external conditions do influence behavior but quite often “it is in ourselves and not in the stars that we are underlings,”

as Shakespeare expressed it. Since this blame-escaping (justifying one's own actions) is motivated by reasons involving social approval, it often is so subtle as to go unrecognized even by the individual who uses it.

Atoning for Reality—The Mechanism of Compensation. Expressed in diverse forms the mechanism of compensation is that one by which both children and adults try to make up for real or imagined inferiority. In a world of competitive striving, this mechanism is especially understandable, since each individual experiences, at one time or another, the feeling that he is inferior in relation to others. The high premium on success is a primary source of tension in modern life. "Keeping up with the Joneses" is a process which keeps comparison in mind at all times. All humans strive to reach some goals. It is the strain of too excessive striving which may cause compensation in case of failure.

Compensation is thus an indication of hitherto unexplained behavior. The child who has led a wretched existence later becomes the adult who works ceaselessly to accumulate a fortune. Charles Dickens, the great English novelist, demonstrated in *David Copperfield* how ill-treatment in youth causes the individual to compensate in later life.

Compensation may bring forth either kind of result. For example, a "bully" may compensate for some hidden feeling of inferiority by attacking others. On the other hand a speech deficiency—stuttering for example—may provoke the individual to reach new heights of attainment in speaking. Every schoolboy is familiar with the story of the Greek Demosthenes who overcame his stuttering to become one of the great orators of all time.

Again, to compensate some students will "run down" others, even feign illness so they can receive the sympathetic attention they appear to lack. Unawareness of the dynamics of compensatory behavior on the part of the teacher may sometimes frighten students into lying or malingering. The important fact to remember is that compensation, whatever way it is manifested, is behavior designed to make up for some real (or imagined) lack or neglect.

Retreating from Reality—Functional Disassociation. This mechanism has been commonly associated with *hysteria* and its symptoms have proved most baffling to investigators. The use of this mechanism has resulted in actual physical impairment. Unstable individuals, for example, while in school, have become apparently violently ill (vomiting

ing, temporary headache, etc.) when faced with the tension accompanying examinations. If excused, these same pupil's symptoms will readily disappear.

Retreating from reality in its milder forms is engaged in by most people who withdraw from the world. It is a kind of escape from reality, wherein a world of fantasy exists. Students, for example, who fear some "bully" quite often still their fears by withdrawal into a world of their own. Noteworthy in this respect are the many cases of war neuroses wherein soldiers have become literally paralyzed, unable to move or even speak when approaching battle zones. Once removed to rear areas they regain their normal functions.

Attacking Reality—The Defiance Mechanism. Unhappy home life, resentment over failures (real or imagined) cause tensions which in turn produce belligerent attitudes in some. It is estimated, for instance, that in 1957 there were some one and one-half million children of divorced parents under the age of 18 in the United States (generally the years of public education). And their number is increasing by about three hundred thousand each year. This makes for a vast and ever-growing population of students in need of guidance of every kind. It is understandable why such children tend to resort to defying society. They are doing so apparently in order to take out their resentment over what they believe to be unfair treatment of them on the part of their parents.

Children are prone to resent one or both parents who they feel have deserted them. Such children are deprived of the emotional support—because of the absence of one or both parents—they must have to grow and develop into mature adults free of bitterness against society in general. In fact, the offspring of divorced parents can do without many of the material luxuries, even many physical comforts, and yet grow to mature adulthood if their emotional needs are met.

Psychologists have insisted that a child can survive almost any painful experience if he is assured of security at home and in the school. The child of divorced parents begins to believe he has been abandoned and thus tends to become hostile to all adults. Such hostility has often been demonstrated in the classroom as well as the other situations in which the child now finds himself as a result of the divorce.

However, it is not only children of divorced parents who are defiant. Many who come from unhappy homes, or homes in which the parent is absent much of the time also take refuge in attacking reality. Lacking security, such a child is resentful against people in general. To

show his resentment he may deprive himself of food at home, refuse to obey the teacher at school, and behave in a generally negative way. Persistence in such conduct may lead to an even more extreme form of maladjustment.

Evaluation of the Mechanisms

Defense mechanisms are ways of behaving through which the individual maintains his psychological integrity himself. At school, for example, certain standards of conduct and achievement are required of the student. Inability to meet these standards may often cause maladjustment. Learning, then, becomes a matter of personality development as well as of acquiring information or skill. As Harsh and Schrickel put it, "In adapting to the unique conditions of his physical and social environment the child learns efficient or acceptable techniques to achieve gratification and avoid harm."²⁴

Behavior which seems normal to the child at home and at play quite often is in conflict with what the school considers desirable. Discipline, for instance, is required in the classroom, yet the child's comprehension is inadequate to grasp the need of such restraint. Guiding the student in this situation means the harmonious reconciliation of conduct with the desired standards. Failure to recognize the need for such reconciliation can cause much harm. Following are four ways by which to evaluate compensatory behavior.²⁵

1. Progress toward Original Goal. To what degree has the mechanism assisted the individual in reaching his primary goal or at least an effective substitute?

2. Prestige or Social Status. To what degree has the mechanism helped the individual to maintain his status in his group?

3. Social Significance. To what degree has the mechanism aided the individual to maintain adequate school, home, vocational, or community relationships?

4. Ability to Adjust. To what degree has the mechanism assisted the individual in coping with future problems?

²⁴ C. M. Harsh and H. G. Schrickel, *Personality: Development and Assessment* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1950), p. 111.

²⁵ B. Katz and G. F. J. Lehner, *Mental Hygiene in Modern Living* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1953).

Such evaluation can prove extremely helpful in the classroom. While not final criteria, they are nonetheless effective in determining how the child is getting along in his classroom and with his fellows. Such insight rules out the need for any quick or harsh measures in discipline problems. Children misbehave for specific reasons, reasons not always easily determined.

Personality and Social Development

In recent years new light has been cast upon *interpersonal* relations. Authorities have come to see—and use—such relationships as a basis for student-development programs. Constructive procedures in the social education of the young envision the group-learning situation as a means of providing them with a feeling of personal security adequate for laying the basis of social growth.

It has proved definitely possible, through group participation, to set up specific social situations in which individual experiences are enhanced. Through actively cooperating with one another pupils secure for themselves needed personal satisfactions. Providing pupils with such experience in which they help one another in a mutual cause has proved its effectiveness in producing desirable attitudes more so than the older practices of praising students and urging them to be “good.”

The young are not born “sociable,” “sympathetic,” “aggressive,” or the like when considered as individuals. Such characteristics merely cover certain kinds of social behavior. This behavior is influenced by home factors, interpersonal relations, schooling, etc. Thus a student may be sympathetic at one time and aggressive during another period. It is contrary to the scientific evidence to hold that characteristics are “innate” since attitudes acquired during one’s lifetime can not be passed along through the germinal stream. Ways of looking at things can only be passed down through education. Different conditions literally dictate different kinds of behavior.

The classroom experiences a child undergoes can result in the desired behavior through friendly relations, improvement of social skills, and the like. Through participation there can be developed a sense of confidence on the part of each pupil. Individual experience is the basis of group experience which forms a medium of personal expression.

Play experiences in school, for example, can, if properly guided, provide some excellent opportunities for social development. By their very construction, games and sports require group participation. If a team is to be successful it must have the “whole-hearted” coopera-

tion of all its players. Through games the individual learns rules of fair play, respect for officials (umpires, referees, etc.), and the like; these lessons are necessary to social development.

Sanctions and Personality. Modes of thinking, i.e., attitudes, may be retraced to cultural backgrounds, although it is accepted that heredity plays an equally decisive role in the individual's development. In the classroom it is essential that certain attitudes be fostered if there is to be any real learning. Guidance can help insure that such learning becomes possible and effective.

To do this, however, it becomes necessary to grasp the implications of *sanctions* or laws (or regulations) upon the individual. What is equally necessary is an awareness of how the satisfaction of needs by the individual may conflict with the possible obstacles to this satisfaction, i.e., sanctions.

To help an individual to work out satisfactory personality development the teacher must know what these needs are and in what situations they operate. The drives and the defense mechanisms have already been discussed. As Symonds writes it, "It is necessary to know with what conflicts between these drives an individual is struggling, and how these conflicts are directed with respect to situations and persons."²⁶

It is in the classroom that the child begins to receive an inkling of the conventions of his society. The classroom begins his education by helping him live in a society governed by sanctions. A child who is well-informed (ignorance is no excuse before the law) is less likely to become frustrated by future "thou shalt nots" of his society than one who is kept in the dark about such matters. Students must have information about the law and what is the proper conduct under such law.

The first formal introduction to the rules which exist to protect society as a whole and which make that society's existence possible is the responsibility of the school. Sanctions which restrain behavior are necessary to the preservation of a society based on law and order. Obviously living together in an organized society demands a standard of conduct. If each person did exactly as he pleased chaos would be the logical (and inevitable) result. The future citizen must be taught respect for and belief in the standards of conduct considered desirable by his society. Each pupil needs to know the necessity of law and order despite his own conflicts at times with sanctions. Kardiner informs us that, "Sanctions are . . . most important if they begin to operate in the childhood of the individual and thus become

²⁶ P. M. Symonds, *op. cit.*, p. 40.

incorporated into the personality structure as the individual's tools of adaptation."²⁷

No doubt it would be simpler to enforce sanctions in the classroom through strict discipline. This would help eradicate any possible dissent and make the class tractable, at least on the surface of things. But respect for rules in the classroom or out of it is not impressed through harsh methods. In fact, history has demonstrated the futility of repressive laws. A classroom is more than a mere training ground for discipline. The classroom is a living area where pupils may be guided to an appreciation of standards of behavior. In this way a teacher can impart not only ideas but ideals as well to her students.

The major problem involved centers around how the individual can adjust to the laws and conventions of his society without becoming too frustrated. Personality is shaped by how well such frustration is avoided—or handled whenever necessary.

Quite often in the classroom, for example, standards are set up by education (as an agency of society) which come into conflict with the child's own particular beliefs. Of course if the standards are too harsh and repressive (e.g., the overdominant teacher, harsh discipline, etc.) there is likely to be some difficulty.

The Concept of Maturity

The mature human being has been defined as one who accepts himself and the world for what it is and does not become overly frustrated when he meets disappointment. This does not mean that such a person is a strict conformist. It does, however, mean that he realizes that the world can not be changed overnight to fit one's own pattern.

The mature person is aware of his own abilities and the limitations of these. Also, such a person does not cling to childhood memories even though such memories meant security for him. (Such immaturity is observable in people who refuse to "grow up" and respond as do children many years younger than they.)

Further, the mature individual does not resort to tears or childish behavior when disappointed. He realizes that certain conditions may be irksome. But he accepts these conditions as part of the necessary obligations involved in living with others. He has in the meantime learned how to satisfy his own needs while permitting others to do

²⁷ A. Kardiner, *The Individual and His Society* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1949), p. 110.

likewise. He is consistent, insightful, self-confident, productive, and socially responsible.

The above characteristics, however, apply mostly to adults. To provide some developmental patterns of the maturing personality, the delegates to the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth have given the following orientation, adapted from an outline by Erik H. Erikson.²⁸ These criteria are not final and entirely definitive, neither are they discrete, but they do represent a generalized and inter-related set of criteria of the developing personality.

The Sense of Trust. The component of the healthy personality that is the first to develop is the sense of trust. The crucial time for its emergence is the first year of life . . . this psychological formation serves to condense, summarize, and synthesize the most important underlying changes that give meaning to the infant's concrete and diversified experience . . . Only gradually does a baby learn that things continue to exist even though he does not see them, that there is order and stability in his universe. [Mother love is the most important requirement in developing this sense of trust.]

The Sense of Autonomy. The sense of trust once firmly established, the struggle for the next component of the healthy personality begins. The child is now twelve to fifteen months old. Much of his energy for the next two years will center around asserting that he is a human being with a mind and will of his own . . .

. . . This stage of development becomes decisive for the ratio between love and hate, between cooperation and willfulness, for freedom of self-expression and its renunciation in the make-up of the individual. The favorable outcome is self-control without loss of self-esteem. The unfavorable outcome is doubt and shame . . .

The Sense of Initiative. Having become sure, for the time being, that he is a person in his own right and having enjoyed that feeling for a year or so, the child of four or five wants to find out what kind of person he can be. To be any particular kind of person, he sees clearly, involves being able to do particular kinds of things. So he observes with keen attention what all manner of interesting adults do (his parents, the milkman, the truck driver, and so on), tries to imitate their behavior and yearns for a share in their activities.

This is the period of enterprise and imagination, an ebullient, creative period when phantasy substitutes for literal execution of desires and the meagerest equipment provides material for high imaginings. It is a period of intrusive, vigorous learning, learning that leads away from the child's own limitations into future possibilities . . .

The Sense of Accomplishment. The three stages so far described probably are the most important for personality development. With a sense of trust, a sense of autonomy, and a sense of initiative achieved, progress through the later states is pretty well assured . . . Since, however, some

²⁸ See the more complete report in *A Healthy Personality for Every Child: A Digest of the Fact Finding Report to the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth* (Raleigh, North Carolina: Health Publications Institute, 1951), pp. 6-25.

children develop into psychologically healthy adults in spite of a bad start, and since some who start well run into difficulties later, it is clear that much research is needed before this conclusion [personality is pretty well set by about six years of age] can be accepted as wholly correct.

. . . the fourth stage, which begins somewhere around six years of age and extends over five or six years, has as its achievement what Erikson calls the sense of industry. Perhaps "sense of accomplishment" would make the meaning clearer. At any rate, this is the period in which preoccupation with phantasy subsides, and the child wants to be engaged in real tasks that he can carry through to completion . . .

The Sense of Identity. With the onset of adolescence another period of personality development begins. As is well known adolescence is a period of storm and stress for many young people, a period in which previous certainties are questioned and previous continuities no longer relied upon. Physiological changes and rapid physical growth provide the somatic base for the turmoil and indecision. It may be that cultural factors play a part, for it has been observed that adolescence is less upsetting in some societies than in others.

The central problem of the period is the establishment of a sense of identity. The identity the adolescent seeks to clarify is who he is, what his role in society is to be. Is he a child or is he an adult? Does he have it in him to be someday a husband and father? What is he to be as a worker and an earner of money? Can he feel self-confident in spite of the fact that his race or religion or national background makes him a person some people look down upon? Over all, will he be a success or a failure? . . .

The Sense of Intimacy. After the sense of identity, to a greater or less extent, is achieved it becomes possible for the next component of the healthy personality to develop. This is the sense of intimacy, intimacy with persons of same sex or of the opposite sex or with one's self. The youth who is not fairly sure of his identity shies away from interpersonal relations and is afraid of close communion with himself. The surer he becomes of himself, the more he seeks intimacy, in the form of friendship, love and inspiration . . . If, by reason of inadequacies in previous development, this sense of intimacy cannot be achieved . . . his relations with people [may become] formal, stereotyped . . . lacking in spontaneity and warmth . . .

The Parental Sense. "Parental sense" designates somewhat the same capacity as that implied in the words, creativity or productivity. The individual has normally come to adulthood before this sense can develop fully.

The parental sense is indicated most clearly by interests in producing and caring for children of one's own. It may also be exhibited in relation to other people's children or by a parental kind of responsibility toward the products of creative activity of other sorts. The mere desire for or possession of children does not indicate that this component of the healthy personality has developed. In fact, many parents who bring their children to child guidance clinics are found not to have reached this stage of personality development.

The essential element is the desire to nourish and nurture what has been produced. It is the ability to regard one's children as a trust of the community, rather than as extensions of one's own personality or merely as beings that one happens to live with . . .

The Sense of Integrity. The final component of the healthy personality is the sense of integrity. In every culture the dominant ideals, honor, courage, faith, purity, grace, fairness, self-discipline, become at this stage the core of the healthy personality's integration. The individual in Erikson's words, "becomes able to accept his individual life cycle and the people who have become significant to it as meaningful within the segment of history in which he lives."

. . . Integrity thus means a new and different love of one's parents, free of the wish that they should have been different, and an acceptance of the fact that one's life is one's own responsibility. It is a sense of comradeship with men and women of distant times and of different pursuits, who have created orders and objects and sayings conveying human dignity and love. Although aware of the relativity of all the various life styles that have given meaning to human striving, the possessor of integrity is ready to defend the dignity of his own life style against all physical and economic threats. For he knows that, for him, all human dignity stands or falls with the one style of integrity.

Vocational Maturity

An interesting proposition which has recently appeared in the literature is that of stages and tasks of vocational development. Since a person's occupational activities are so significant in his total life pattern and adjustment, a description of the stages and developmental tasks in one's vocational maturation process is here offered. A knowledge of these processes will be helpful in appraising maturity levels.

Although several occupational psychologists are investigating the area of vocational development, the work by Super is presented. First, he reconstructs Buhler's category of life stages in terms of vocational developmental sequences.

1. Growth stage (Birth-14)

During this period the child develops a self-concept, expresses his needs in various ways, and plays various roles as he tests himself and reality in his progress through the sub-stages of fantasy (4-10), interest (11-12), and capacity (13-14).

2. Exploration stage (age 15-24)

During this period the youth engages in self examination, role tryouts in all his activities of school, leisure and casual work. First his considerations are *tentative* (15-17), then in a *transitional* stage (18-21), and then *trial* (22-24) as he tries out his life's work.

3. Establishment stage (age 25-44)

Having found an appropriate field, the young adult strives to make a permanent place in it. He may make shifts and other *trials* (25-30) as he moves toward *stabilization* (31-44).

4. Maintenance stage (age 45-65)

During this period, the person, having found his life's work, wishes to maintain himself in it.

5. *Decline stage* (age 65 on)

Facing decline of physical and mental processes, he is forced into new roles as observer instead of participant as he moves through the substages of *deceleration* (65-70) and *retirement* (71 on).²⁹

The process of vocational development is given further analysis and clarification by Super and his colleagues in their description of their Career Pattern Studies at Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation in the section where they apply Havighurst's developmental tasks to vocational maturation. The following table is self-descriptive; however, the reader should never forget the dynamic nature of the process.

OUTLINE OF VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER

Preschool Child

1. Increasing ability for self-help
2. Identification with like-sexed parent
3. Increasing ability for self-direction

Elementary School Child

1. Ability to understand cooperative enterprises
2. Choice of activities suited to one's abilities
3. Assumption of responsibility for one's acts
4. Performance of chores around the house

High School Adolescent

1. Further development of abilities and talents
2. Choice of high school or work
3. Choice of high school curriculum
4. Development of independence

Young Adult

1. Choice of college or work
2. Choice of college curriculum
3. Choice of suitable job
4. Development of skills on the job

Mature Adult

1. Stabilization in an occupation
2. Providing for future security
3. Finding appropriate avenues of advancement

Older Person

1. Gradual retirement
2. Finding suitable activities for skills to occupy time
3. Maintaining self-sufficiency insofar as possible³⁰

²⁹ D. E. Super, et al., *Vocational Development, A Framework for Research* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957), pp. 40-41. Additional discussion of the developmental nature of occupational choice is given in Chapter 13.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 44.

Summary

Any appraisal of personality development must depend on the standards by which it is judged. The environment people live under has much to do with shaping their attitudes and behavior. The individual moves in his own unique way to meet certain needs as dictated by his environment. It is these needs which produce that behavior we come to recognize as one's personality. When these needs are not adequately met, frustration results. In order to maintain psychological integrity humans behave autocorrectively. Thus the individual may for example use falsehoods, strive unduly, or in some case create new things in order to ward off undue tension.

Guidance is particularly apropos in the process of personality development, at least insofar as education is concerned. The classroom program must be organized so that the child develops in an atmosphere of friendly cooperation. In addition he must be shown the wisdom of the sanctions which help regulate his behavior. Personality is expressed in daily contacts. Guidance can promote personality development through demonstrating the balance which must exist between the individual and his society.

Suggested Problems

1. Make a brief study of two children of about the same age and note in what ways the children are alike and in what ways they are different.
2. Observe a group of children at play and note overt actions which appear to indicate an attempt to satisfy or compensate for some of the "needs" brought out by Maslow.
3. What does Maslow mean by "Man is a perpetually wanting animal."?
4. In what ways does your own value-system differ from what it was when you were a child? Are there some values which you once "learned" that are no longer held by you? What persons, events, or circumstances caused the change of opinion?
5. What are some factors in present-day American life which contribute to the use of defense mechanisms by members of our society? Give some specific examples.
6. According to the four ways listed by Katz, attempt to evaluate some compensatory behavior which you once used—i.e., to what degree did the mechanism help you reach your primary goal or at least an effective substitute.

7. What are some rules of behavior which children may meet for the first time in the classroom setting?
8. Why is individual appraisal the first function of the guidance program?

Suggested Readings

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Chapter 5

The Developing Personality in the Home and Community

The last chapter attempted to analyze and to describe personality so as to form a basis for understanding the individual. This chapter, in turn, treats the environmental influences which are instrumental in forming personality. It is from the home and the community that the growing child first learns those ideas and attitudes which give impetus to his behavior.

The relative aspects of heredity and environment have long been argued. What is certain, however, in all of this controversy is that much of behavior is a product of learned responses in early life. Research has disclosed how important early environmental influences are in the person's development. How and what the child learns during his contacts with home and community thus becomes the concern of those seeking to guide him along desired paths.

Meaning of Environment

The entire universe, actually, can be included in a definition of environment. More specifically, however, the environment is considered in terms of the people and conditions which, in some measure, influence man's behavior. For purposes of convenience, the term environment has been generally broken down under three headings:

natural, cultural, and social. It is recognized that all three are inter-related and are to be considered in terms of this inter-relationship. A word of caution needs to be entered here.

Because of the emphasis upon environment the picture of its effects has become somewhat overdrawn. No doubt environment exerts a tremendous influence upon people—particularly the young—but this fact should not conceal the equally important effects of heredity. Both environment and heredity must be considered in any appraisal of human development. With this in mind the role which the environment plays in shaping the individual's character takes on a broader perspective.

The environment, then, colors all our lives but how to distinguish each single influence has proved particularly difficult because of the complexity of human behavior. Dividing the environment, even if theoretically, as will be seen in the pages ahead, has done much to lessen this difficulty.

The Natural Environment. First of all, there surrounds man, as a species of animal, the medium in which he physically exists, i.e., the natural environment. The climate, the soil, whether one is near a coastline or many feet above sea level, these are all familiar conditions which play a primary role in the shaping of individual behavior. The sun will blacken the inhabitant of the equatorial zone and the rarified atmosphere of the high mountain range will expand in amazing fashion the lung capacity of those who must live in it. The Sherpa guides who led Sir Edmund Hillary and his companions to their notable conquest of Mount Everest survived where few others could because they were by birth and conditioning "mountain men."

The Bedouin of the desert and the Eskimo of the Arctic wastes alike are products of their physical environment, each developing physically in relation to their surroundings. The subsequent results of this development are to be seen in the personality of these two widely opposed human types. Certainly men vary within their own group but each human grows according to the physical environment in which this group operates.

For example, lack of certain natural ingredients in the soil have stunted growth in tribes living off it. And conversely, the presence of these same elements have made literal giants of men. To cite one case, differences in diet and surroundings have apparently caused many Americans of Japanese descent (*nisei*) to be larger than their parents who emigrated from the old country (*issei*).

The Cultural Environment. Along with the physical environment personality development is colored by the culture of the group, a culture which emerges in great part—if not entirely—out of this same physical environment. To use the previous example of the Eskimo: He builds his kayak because he has found this vessel effective in hunting the kind of game (e.g., seal and walrus) which is found in those icy wastes. The sliver of walrus bone he uses as a needle to thread together his kayak, the animal hides which make up his clothing, the spear with which he hunts are all *artifacts* of his culture, artifacts which arise as he copes with his physical surroundings to survive.

By the same token, the Arab because of the conditions forced upon him by desert living will use a camel and such clothing as will shield his face and body from the burning sun. Technological advances have indeed changed ancient ways of living but these advances too have to be fitted to the physical environment and to the culture of the people to whom they have come.

Culture thus molds a people together, and while universal to man each local manifestation is unique. Men have everywhere created culture, in fact they are characterized by the set of common symbols, the common understandings and meanings which mark their own culture. From the viewpoint of contemporary sociological study, Gittler writes that,

A society exists in so far as its constituent members possess a set of shared values, a set of common motives to achieve these ends, and a pattern of interaction conducive to the realization of these values. These shared values (material and non-material) some of which are realized and others idealized, constitute the core of a people's culture. We frequently say that a society possesses culture, a group an ethos.¹

Culture may thus be characterized as the *learned* ways of acting and thinking which are transmitted by group members to other group members and which provide for everyone ready-made and tested solutions for the problems of survival. If an individual, in fact, were to develop in isolation from the culture of his group, he would show so few of what are called human characteristics as to be unable to survive. This is particularly true of the individual in the civilized community. Such an individual would not possess the accumulation of knowledge and beliefs of so many generations of his own kind. Because culture is essentially a group attitude and further because it is

¹ J. P. Gittler, "Social Dynamics: Principles and Cases," in *Introductory Sociology* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952), pp. 226-227.

an attitude which must be learned its transmission is now left almost wholly to the school.

The Social Environment. The social environment is generally considered as including those people and conditions which make up our closest contacts (i.e., home and community) and which more or less directly influence our behavior. Furthermore, the social environment is that which gives purpose and meaning, not only to individual endeavor, but to people living together in home and community. The particular society in which the individual exists is also the medium through which is filtered the influence of both the natural and cultural environments.

In its own turn a society may also have several or more subdivisions. The American society is a heterogeneous one with its educational needs and offerings varying from region to region. Americans all, yet each region presents several distinct problems peculiar to itself alone. Guidance programs will obviously have to be geared to meet the needs of the particular group for which they are designed. Job possibilities in one place, for example, will call for specialized training, training which may be either unnecessary or impractical anywhere else. There is no point in developing guidance programs—particularly in an era of shortages—unless the goals of the school are harmonized with those of the community.

Thus while any program in education, guidance or otherwise, should strive to be as broad as possible, the social environment literally will dictate the direction the schools are to follow. This consideration is not meant in any way to imply that individual initiative and enterprise are to be overlooked. It is rather an indication of how important the environment is in any guidance effort.

However, it must also be remembered, that individuals respond differently to the same environment—although the environment affects everyone in some degree. Guidance must take into consideration the facts of this difference. Taken as a whole, however, the value-system of a particular society inundates all aspects of the behavior of its members. Sorokin describes this view of personality development as follows:

. . . the superorganic aspect of a personality is not determined by or acquired from biological heredity. It is molded by the social . . . milieu. Man's beliefs, values, and norms, his emotional and volitional expression and his meaningful actions (but not his purely reflexive and instinctive reactions) are furnished and processed by the social groups with which he interacts. There is no other source for the social and cultural properties of the individual The margin of personal creativity is ordinarily fairly narrow,

sometimes, non-existent. Therefore a *socius*, a person, in contradistinction to a mere biological organism, cannot help becoming a mirror of his socio-cultural universe.²

The Family and Home

The family as the basis of group life has been entrenched, in Western civilization, at least, from its very beginning. The family, more specifically, is a biological entity whereas the "home" is a creation of man in and out of which the family operates. Both the family and the home are however now accepted social institutions, the names in fact, having been made interchangeable through common usage. Considered in its most basic form, the family is a short-lived nutritional cohesion of mother and young. The male of many species vanishes long before his offspring have made their entrance into the world.

It is chiefly in the human species that the family acquires its importance as a unit. The reason for this phenomenon is obvious: the helpless condition of the young. Being born helpless and remaining so for months, even years, has necessitated the remaining together of the human family. Again, there are such other considerations as the schooling of the child, the division of labor between father and mother, moral rules of the society, and the like factors. Added to all this is the sheer need for companionship, i.e., gregariousness among like, which is, in fact, a characteristic of most living creatures.

Today the family is losing cohesiveness, perhaps, as never before. Divorce, both parents at work, the loosening of ethical standards have all weakened the family structure to the point where family life as an institution is being seriously threatened. When it is considered how high the divorce rate is in many areas the proof of the previous statement is tragically obvious. The values of family life are too precious to be thrown away. For it is in the home that the child starts to receive those influences so vital to his development. This brings the discussion to the home, the nuclear unit of the American community and the center of family life.

Early Home Life

It has become commonplace now to assert that the foundations for mature behavior are determined early in life. In fact, child specialists are agreed that the first five or six years are the basis of all later development in this respect. It is therefore very much in the domain of

² P. A. Sorokin, *Society, Culture, and Personality* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947), p. 342.

guidance to explore the means by which the home operates to meet the primary needs of the child.³

Since the personality development of the individual is so decidedly influenced by the experiences he meets in early life, the way in which he is handled by his parents and others close to him during his formative years is a matter of deep concern to guidance plans. Information is needed concerning the specifications of a given home, the kind of parental guidance, desirable and undesirable, and the community in which this home is located. The guidance worker has to know in addition under what family conditions the child is developing, and how the child acquires the social outlook which will characterize him as he develops physically, intellectually, and emotionally. The following passage is indicative of modern thinking on the subject of child rearing:

In every human society, human infants are born helpless and relatively undeveloped, dependent upon adult nurture and adult transmission of the great body of culture—beliefs, practices, skills—which make it possible for any human group, and for this human group in particular, to function as human beings. Humanity as we know it is not merely a matter of our human physique, of our prehensile thumbs, upright posture, and highly developed brains, but of our capacity to accumulate and build upon the inventions and experiences of previous generations. A child who does not participate in this great body of tradition, whether because of defect, neglect, or injury, or disease, never becomes fully human.⁴

That parents must make provision for the physical care and nourishment of their children is obvious. But what has not been perfectly understood until recent times is that a satisfactory family life also is necessary for the adequate emotional development of the child.

Educational guidance is concerned with all-around development. However, in order for a student to be placed in the right curriculum and course, it is first necessary to evaluate his background with respect to abilities and potentialities. Courses must obviously fit individual needs. The cultural and social aspects, for example, of a student's home are significant factors in placing him educationally.

³ That the parents must assume primary responsibility for the child is recognized not only by experts on child development but by the highest tribunal in the land. In a decision handed down in 1944 (*Prince vs. Massachusetts* 321 U.S. 158), the United States Supreme Court declared that: "It is cardinal with us that the custody, care and nurture of the child reside first in the parents, whose primary function and freedom include preparations for obligations the state can neither supply nor hinder."

⁴ M. Mead and M. Wolfenstein, *Childhood in Contemporary Cultures* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 6.

The status and ambitions of parents must also be taken into account by the guidance worker. Among the ways to obtain data on these factors are parent-teacher conferences, autobiographies, and the like techniques (techniques which will be discussed in more detail in a later chapter). It should be sufficient for now to understand how important home life is in the educational development of the child. The following passage points up this necessary relationship of home and school in the guidance program:

There are certain previous experiences, maladjustments, and social and economic conditions within the home that make guidance imperative. Many students reach . . . school with physical or mental defects, such as poor reading habits, diseases, and physical disabilities. Sometimes these are not clearly defined, but will greatly affect schoolwork and later life. Emotional conditions and certain home factors, both economic and social, must be considered. Narrow vocational training may result from special abilities or interests if a student's choice is left entirely to him. Hence the need for guidance.⁵

Because of this new emphasis on early childhood development the modern guidance worker has a quite new awareness both of the complexity of human behavior and of the many factors bound up with this behavior. One has only to consider the effects of home life upon the child and then attempt to judge the child by his school work to realize how incomplete a picture is derived solely from the latter judgment alone.

One of the major tasks facing the guidance worker is that of coping with the problems engendered by divorce and other family breakdowns. The role of the family as the basis of stable home life has changed, and certainly not for the better, during the past several decades. The partial results of such breakdown in family life are only too evident in the high delinquency rates, the number of emotionally disturbed children, and other unfortunate manifestations. The lack of a wholesome family atmosphere is not conducive to the proper development of children who need the care and warmth which are only possible in this kind of atmosphere.

Treatment in Childhood

The infant is literally walled in by an environment made up of his mother's care and affection. The need for such care and affection

⁵ J. B. Edmonson, J. Roemer, and F. L. Bacon, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1948), p. 228.

has been pointed up by many child specialists. Ribble, for example, in her now-classic work⁶ on early care and feeding showed how in a number of cases of abandoned children or those from whom maternal love was withdrawn some form of maladjustment took place. To Ribble, in fact, "... the most important stimulus to the growth and maturing of a healthy personality in the child is sound relationships with both parents."⁷

Infants and young children are thus dependent upon affectionate physical contacts with those involved in their upbringing.⁸ Such a condition would indicate the general superiority for child development of at least relatively affectionate surroundings.

The infant has definite psychological needs which must be met if he is to develop into the emotionally mature adult. Just as nourishing food and appropriate hygienic conditions are essential to satisfactory physical health and development, adequate psychological experiences are necessary for the mature personality.

If they are to escape undue tension and later feelings of insecurity infants must have both organic and psychological satisfactions. Some years ago the question of the raising of children was thrown open to considerable argument by Watson's concept of infant training.⁹ It was Watson's contention that the infant could be indeed conditioned to develop self-reliance and other like qualities if permitted to grow unhampered through undue attention and petting by the mother.

While it is evident that too much pampering may be distracting to the child recent studies and observations have tended to show that Watson's views may have been an oversimplification of the problem of child rearing. Few will deny that overprotection should be avoided but students of child development are agreed to a considerable extent that love and attention intelligently given are essential to adequate personality development. As Symonds writes: "Probably the first and most important factor making for a good parent is that the individual should have had a secure childhood and have grown up to an emotionally secure person. With a stable and loving father

⁶ M. A. Ribble, *The Rights of Infants* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1943), p. 82.

⁷ ———, *The Personality of the Young Child* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1955), p. 9.

⁸ See, for example, J. Aubry, "The Effects of Lack of Maternal Care: Methods of Studying Children Aged One to Three Years, Placed in Institutions," in G. Caplan, (Ed.), *Emotional Problems of Early Childhood* (New York: Basic Books, 1955), pp. 283-321.

⁹ J. B. Watson, *Psychological Care of Infant and Child* (New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1928).

and mother a boy or girl grows up to take on stable characteristics, and when the time comes he or she will take on the responsibilities of parenthood . . . one can look to good parents and a happy childhood as the prime ingredient in the making of a good parent in the next generation.¹⁰

Social Behavior. It is in the inner circle of his home that the child acquires both the feeling of personal acceptance which lays the groundwork for being favorably disposed toward other persons and the expanding social behavior which insures cooperation with the larger environment outside the home. Family experience determines in great part whether the human offspring will evolve from an individualized infant to a socialized adult, or whether he will be self-centered and emotionally immature. The adequate home provides the basis for the social growth so essential to the balanced personality. According to Brower, "Children who have not learned love in their homes often find it almost impossible fully to trust other persons. They have been hurt and they do not want another painful experience. A burned child fears the fire."¹¹

When, for example, the home atmosphere is tense with parental discord, the child becomes torn between loyalty to father and to mother. Such conflict, if overdrawn, may make the child suspicious of all people and trusting in none. Quite often in the classroom are found children upset and confused because of friction at home. The need for cooperation between the school and the home in these cases then becomes imperative. Certainly no one guidance program can hope to rectify inadequate child-parent relationships. But guidance workers can and should play an important role in enhancing the early experiences of childhood as well as seeking to improve, if necessary, those which may be inadequate in the home.

Adequate Family Life. Society and its institutions—the school, the church, the courts, etc.—are striving more and more to meet the problems brought about by the high incidence of divorce throughout the whole country. Marriage as a formal and public relationship between two people may or may not continue to survive, but it is no less correct to believe that children will continue to require satisfactory home conditions. Stable family conditions still remain the basis of com-

¹⁰ P. M. Symonds, *The Dynamics of Parent-Child Relationships* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949), pp. 128-129.

¹¹ E. Brower, "The Visiting Teacher Looks at the Rejected Child," *Mental Hygiene*, Vol. 33 (1949), pp. 432-435.

munity life. The discontinuance of the family as we know it would likely bring the end of stable government, since there is no comparable institution of society which can possibly provide its services and values.

From the Greek philosopher Plato onward there have been suggestions for over two thousand years that the rearing and educating of children be left to the ministrations of the state. It is, however, difficult to envision the American community without the family as its basis. Certainly the state must bear some of the responsibility of educating the future citizen. The school itself is a public institution designated for that purpose. But there is strong evidence available indicating that planned and intelligent parenthood remains as the best source for the development of the desirable citizen. When children are striving to meet their needs and to satisfy their desires it is the family which is in the most strategic position to guide them into ways of responding to society and to each other so that their patterns of action are those essential in democratic living.¹²

Parent-Child Relationships

Considered ideally the relationship between parent and child should be one of mutual affection and respect since as we have pointed out the child's original socialization takes place within the shelter of the home. Thorpe writes that:

In a social world the growing child's personal integrity is dependent upon mutuality in social relations, and cannot be insured on an egocentric program which leads to indifferent treatment of people. Thus the child's eventual social adjustment depends upon the extent to which he respects the rights, feelings, and property of those with whom he associates. The well-adjusted individual is the socialized individual, and socialization is a product of home treatment marked by tolerance, respect, and affection The adequate home lays the foundation for social growth, and social growth is fundamental to the maintenance of mental health.¹³

The behavior which parents manifest toward each other must also be taken into account since it is of primary influence upon children's later personality development. There is little doubt that relatively more maladjusted children come from broken homes or homes in which pronounced marital friction exists than from those in which a

¹² *Teachers Guide to Education in Early Childhood* (compiled by the Bureau of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education, 1956), Chap. 7.

¹³ L. P. Thorpe, *Child Psychology and Development* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1955), p. 219.

happy relationship exists. Faulty parent-child relationships are not always the result of stupidity or ignorance on the part of those involved. Instead, they may be related to the parents' own personality structure and emotional conflicts. It is these conflicts which so often are reflected in the child's behavior, behavior so baffling to the classroom teacher, perhaps, unaware of the reasons behind it.

Too often there has been a decided lack of cooperation between parents (or between parents and school) in matters vital to the effective rearing of the child. When such is the case the child may learn to use one parent against the other for his own protection. Emotionally upset, such a child brings his defense mechanisms into the classroom. He sees the teacher and the other students about him as potential enemies despite the fact that he is treated with consideration. In such cases it is the behavior of the parents which is conducive towards suspicion on the part of the child.

Broken Homes

On the other hand, the effect of the broken home upon youthful behavior can hardly be overdrawn. The departure of a parent sometimes will take away the sense of security which the child needs. Such a child may then believe that the teacher and his classmates have become hostile to him just because he now lacks a parent. A teacher can actually do little in such cases for the causes are outside of her domain. She can, however, consult with the proper community agencies to see what can be done to possibly ameliorate home conditions.

Furthermore, separation and divorce are generally accompanied by emotional upheavals which may leave their effects upon the child who is involved. Usually divorce is the culmination of a long and protracted series of quarrels between the parents. No child can for long exist in such an atmosphere and escape its effects. He is a forced witness of his parents' quarrels and is left with a sense of confusion and distrust. The tragic result of marital conflicts are evidenced in the maladjusted child, who deprived of his fundamental needs, is thereby prevented from preserving his psychological integrity.

Sex Education

The problem of how to adequately inform the young has been confused through inadequate knowledge and prejudice on the subject.

Sex education is indubitably a social problem with the parents primarily responsible for giving instruction on the subject to their children. Thus far even many of the guidance programs have tended to overlook this vital issue.

Too often the sex problem has been treated with such mystery and confusion by both parents and teachers that children are motivated to secure their knowledge from unwholesome sources. Sex is a fundamental drive and the adolescent will seek for answers, no matter the sources. It becomes, then, the duty of the parent to treat this problem intelligently.

Thus instead of repressing the child's natural curiosity he should be informed that sex is not only one of the most fundamental drives of the human species; it is necessary to the furtherance of our society. The child should be encouraged both in the home and at school to treat matters of sex as openly and unashamedly as any other problem of like magnitude. He should be helped in developing a sense of modesty on the subject but one devoid of feelings of shame or secrecy. Questions on the implications of sex for himself should be answered tactfully if such need be the case, but certainly without evasion. Inadequate or concealed information will, it has been too often proved, provoke even further the child's curiosity. If frustrated in his seeking for information he may come finally to distrust and even lose faith in those attempting to guide him along certain directions.

Intra-Family Relationships

The relationships between siblings (brothers and sisters of the same family are siblings) are of paramount importance in the development of individual behavior. For example, the child's position in the family and what he means to another in the same family are factors which leave a decided imprint upon him.

The order of birth, viz., whether he is the youngest or oldest or intermediate, will make a difference to the individual. Also to be taken into account in any measurement of behavior are such considerations as age, sex, whether the child is a stepchild, etc. One need think of his own relations with brothers or sisters or with parents to see how one's experiences vary from another individual's. The only child, for example, is considered more vulnerable to personality disorders than are children of large families. The possibility of maladjustment on the part of the only child becomes even more likely when the parents are beyond the normal child-rearing age or where one parent centers his or her attention upon the child instead of the mate.

As Cruze puts it, "... undoubtedly, the only child whose parents do not understand the difficulties involved in rearing an only child is in greater danger of becoming individualistic and egotistic than the child with brothers and sisters."¹⁴

Since he is for a time the only child the oldest child receives a great deal of attention. Quite often such a child becomes "spoiled." The coming of other children, however, usually tends to lessen the chances for maladjustment on the part of the first-born.

In some cases the oldest child may, because of circumstances beyond his own control, be overtaxed with responsibility, as the first-born is often expected to take on some of the burden of taking care of the younger children. When these burdens, however, are not too taxing and onerous, the oldest child may even gain maturity through his work.

If the oldest child sometimes presents a problem in the classroom it is because since he is the first-born his parents have "experimented" with him or later have come to expect too much of him. Certainly intermediate children have their problems too but apparently their position in the family makes them less vulnerable than, say, the youngest child who is so often dominated by his sisters and brothers.

The intermediate children are not, in general, subject to as many pressures as the oldest or youngest. The youngest child, for instance, is often denied the experiences essential to the development of those characteristics essential to mature behavior. Thus it is easy to see how in some cases the youngest child retains infantile methods of adjustment, depending upon others to protect him. As a result of this sense of dependence the youngest child may often fear to make decisions. Even as an adult such an individual has returned to his parents for help when he was in personal difficulty. Cruze sums it up by stating that the home should "... provide consistent guidance, supervision, and control of the child until he reaches the stage of development when he has the necessary background, experience, and ability to make his own decisions and control his own behavior wisely."¹⁵

Rivalry among Members of Family

It seems that the very process of living together brings on jealousies and rivalries among siblings. A child may become hurt when he fears that he is being neglected in favor of others. Quite often a new-born

¹⁴ W. W. Cruze, *Adolescent Psychology and Development* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1953), p. 284.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 285.

child will cause a brother or sister to become jealous since his arrival many times will cause them to be deprived of privileges and parental attention. Another cause of dissension is to be found when someone makes unfavorable comparisons between two members of a family.

The intermediate child (or children) may, because of receiving neither the attention accorded the oldest nor the recognition bestowed upon the youngest, be allowed to fall into the background of parental affection. Such a situation tends to bring on feelings of insecurity on the part of the neglected child. This insecurity is aggravated when parents are not astute enough to sense the middle child's need for equal status and recognition. The fact of being a middle child can make a child vulnerable to neglect and feelings of inadequacy if parents do not use care. The obstacles in question can, however, be avoided by parents who are perceptive enough to recognize the need of such equal treatment for all their children. Again, it is the treatment a child receives and not his position in the family as such which will largely determine his pattern of development.

Adequate upbringing thus depends upon an awareness of the dynamics of inter-sibling rivalry. Guided into the proper channels such rivalry can be rendered harmless. However, to ignore the problem is to face the prospect of difficulties ahead. Davis and Havighurst characterize the situation as follows:

Whether a child is a first child, who has been replaced by a new baby, or whether he finds older and therefore more privileged brothers on the scene when he arrives, he certainly will have to come to grips with jealousy and rivalry. To make the situation worse, his parents unconsciously will train him in a contradictory fashion concerning this rivalry. For they will urge him both to *compete* with his brothers and sisters in some ways, and *not* to compete with them in other ways. This rivalry between the children, themselves, is often an insidious, full-scale, and bitter fight. In this battle, the victor gains *more* parental care and indulgence than his brothers or sisters. He hopes also to gain, and may actually gain, the one inestimable prize of life, that without which nothing can be wholly satisfying, as the child sees life—namely, the priceless gift of being the “most loved”—by the mother, if possible. If not, to be the best loved of the father is something, a kind of high consolation prize.¹⁶

Family Cooperation

With adequate training children can be prepared for even the arrival of a younger brother or sister. Parents who are thoughtful can

¹⁶ A. W. Davis and R. J. Havighurst, *Father of the Man* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947), pp. 120–121.

continue to recognize and care for the other children while nurturing the new arrivals. Such parents are in a favorable position to develop harmonious relationships among members of the family. Rivalry becomes good-natured and leads to a striving for improvement instead of causing friction.

A child who continues to receive recognition and affection while helping in the care of an infant or helping a sibling defend himself against neighborhood bullies tends to grow in responsibility. Desirable results are not gained by asking the child to give up basic satisfactions in favor of adult concepts of cooperation. It is in concrete situations which insure the satisfactions of his basic needs and drives that he learns to improve his ways of behaving. The child's level of maturity must be included in any program of socialization.

Children brought up in accordance with sound family-rearing practices are much more likely to cooperate than those who are not. A mother can explain to an older boy why he must, for example, protect his younger brother from unfair attacks by some gang at school. Habits of cooperation involving work, play, and harmonious family relationships can be inculcated if time and effort are given to the task. A child can be taught to speak proudly of his brothers and sisters. Equally, a child can be taught to share toys and privileges with other members of the family as well as playmates.

Parent-Teacher Relationships

A good home is thus seen as one in which the child is given the widest opportunity for self-expression within the limits of parental love and supervision. Two parents who love one another and their child and are perceptive to his needs are in an unexcelled position with respect to child-rearing. In an atmosphere wherein the child feels wanted and secure, he is better able to share with his parents those experiences which are conducive to effective development.

Ideally, parents should consider the school as joined with them in a common effort to rear their children into desirable adults. To quote:

The environment of a community is conditioned by the families that live in it. The environment of the homes is in turn influenced by the community. Since the public school, through its many services, reaches into most of the homes in a community, the school can play an important part in a community by providing education for family living.¹⁷

¹⁷ *Teachers Guide to Education in Early Childhood* (compiled by the Bureau of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education, 1956), pp. 299-300.

Through providing appropriate experiences at each stage of development by combining their efforts parents and teachers can help pupils contribute to the happiness and well-being of their families. In fact, the success the school has in carrying out this responsibility is often increased by the adequacy of parent-teacher relationships.

The school and the home together share the responsibility for providing an environment in which the child may receive not only the love and security of those close to him but the optimum cultural benefits as well. Slighting or rejecting of the child by either the parents or the teacher may often lead to a feeling of insecurity on his part. Magoun sums up the danger of such treatment as follows:

The sources of later personality maladjustment are not inborn. These develop as a result of the reaction of the inside self to the outside environment. Denial of genuine affection cannot be remembered by the baby, but the attitude it develops will remain. If he senses respect . . . for his individuality, reasonable outlets (including the right to cry), responsibilities that grow as he grows but never beyond the limits of his development, wisdom will soon be able to approach readjustments, expecting to succeed. Result: self confidence and adaptive behavior. If the child has a series of painful and humiliating experiences . . . wisdom will never become strong enough to face a readjustment. Result: weakness and lack of wholesome adaptive responses.¹⁸

Community Organization

The growing complexity of community organization has necessitated a re-appraisal of the school program in general. It has been amply demonstrated how closely school and community are inter-woven in a common purpose. The schools have come to work with civic organizations more than ever before to promote individual development. This means that classroom practices must be geared to the needs of both individual and community on every level of instruction.

From this it follows that there need to be some organized services to promote this goal. Even the actual school conditions make such pupil personnel services necessary. The classroom teacher does not have the time to furnish these services, to say nothing of the requisite specialized training. It thus becomes necessary for the school to call in various specialists from the community to help carry through its educational objectives.

¹⁸ F. A. Magoun, *Balanced Personality* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943), p. 109.

Role of the Specialists. It is the specialist who brings to the school the expert skills and information which the classroom teacher can not provide. The psychiatrist, the psychologist, the counselor, to name some of the school specialists, are necessary adjuncts of the guidance program. Without their professional assistance many pupils would be severely handicapped. In this way the specialists play an important role in the organization and administration of personnel services. As part of the community these specialists serve in a dual capacity: (1) by taking an active part in the guidance program they become educators; and (2) as private citizens as well as specialists they bring the community right into the classroom.

Again, the teacher through the services of the specialist can gain added insight into the more complex areas of human behavior. This does not imply that she, herself, should practice such services, but, rather, that awareness of them can facilitate her own procedures. In addition the teacher comes into closer contact with people who are engaged with her in a common task. The school physician, for instance, enters many homes in his practice and discusses with parents the problems of children both in and out of school. As one prominent writer describes it guidance specialists " . . . render services of a type similar to that rendered by supervisors in arithmetic, art, or social studies. The teacher calls on these specialists for expert assistance in finding out what to do and how to proceed."¹⁹ In this way the data gathered by experts are accessible to teachers in the solution of their problems. For their part the teachers cooperate with the specialists in enhancing the latter's services.

Group Conformity

The more intellectually and emotionally mature an individual is the more likelihood there is of his accepting group standards. This, however, is not to imply that the individual should accept the conditions about him uncritically. To the contrary, the mark of the free society is found in the ability of its citizens to intelligently weigh any and all issues, accepting or rejecting them in a free spirit. However, the mature person will not become anti-social merely because he does not always see eye-to-eye with what the majority have laid down as standards of conduct. Immaturity, in fact, is often characterized by

¹⁹ H. J. Otto, *Elementary School Organization and Administration* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954), p. 402.

the unwillingness to conform without examining the need to conform fairly.

The adjusted human being is one who comes to acknowledge that standards of conduct (as exemplified in the institutions of the community) are necessary for the preservation of his own rights and privileges as well as those of the community. No individual is an "island to himself" nor can he be in an increasingly complex and interdependent society. Lawfulness is the surety of the stable society. Some restraints are necessary in group living, restraints which must be explained to everyone in their proper perspective. The relationship between the individual and his community has come to depend more and more upon various group institutions (home, school, civic club, etc.). These institutions, in turn, arise out of the laws, the customs and taboos of the community which gave them meaning in the first place.

Group standards thus initiate and, in an important sense, control behavior. Organized groups have found it necessary to develop effective means for insuring conformity. Group conformity, however, does not imply the use of authoritarian practices. It is rather society's method of maintaining its function and values. The unique problem in a democracy is that of conserving individual values within the framework of the necessary conformity to group values. An eminent sociologist has described group conformity as follows:

Conformity to type is regarded as contributing both to the safety and to the efficiency of the group. Out of this notion grow conscious efforts to increase conformity, to scrutinize the "kinds" and to limit the range of variation. A social constraint is consciously evolved which exerts its pressure upon all component units of the group. As in the case of environmental constraints, social constraint affects selection. In the long run it makes itself felt in the selective death-rate. The kind or type that survives under social pressure is believed by the conscious units of society to be relatively efficient in the struggle for existence. It is supposed also to be relatively individualized. A group or community in which increasing individualism is secured without imperiling race maintenance thinks of itself as progressive.²⁰

Aspects of Group Conformity. In early social groups, "enemy" and "stranger" were synonymous terms and xenophobia (fear of strangers) still remains with us as a token of those uncivilized times. Primitive man hiding in his cave did have good cause for such behavior, for

²⁰ F. H. Giddings, *Studies in the Theory of Human Society* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1922), pp. 205-206.

every stranger was, in fact, an enemy. With civilization has come, however, the need for living and getting along with others. Modern means of transportation and communication have, despite ourselves, made us all neighbors. Civilization itself rests on accepted codes of behavior. Thus conformity is not only a means for group living; it has literally become a means for survival.

In the American society conformity is effected largely through different organizations within the community proper. The kind of organization to which an individual belongs of course depends upon the individual's preferences, income level, profession or job, and the like considerations. There is however, no gainsaying the fact that the American people, in general, are a nation of "joiners," a fact which has done as much, perhaps, for group conformity as any other activity of our national life. Who is not familiar with the convention meetings, the parades, and all the other phenomena of our justly famous civic and fraternal organizations? In this respect it must be added that as individuals, Americans tend, however, to belong to various social groups rather than to political organizations as is the case in many European countries.

Americans also tend to be less extreme in their views of group conformity than are, say, their Latin neighbors. Nevertheless, the institutions to which Americans belong color their lives in many ways. Familiar figures in every community are those persons who seem always to be striving to belong to certain social groups. Thus organizations are a form of group life by which the personality of the individual becomes molded.

The institution, as such, represents the reflection of an ideal or principle which gives direction and purpose to behavior. The Boy Scouts, for example, attempt to inculcate into the young man attributes which will make him behave in a certain way (e.g., courtesy, respect for others, etc.). The members of any organization are involved in affairs which affect them all. For instance, associations and ideas formed on high school and college athletic teams often remain throughout one's lifetime. It is this "growth of communion,"²¹ to use Znaniecki's expressive phrase, among those individuals who belong to an organization which welds them into a cohesive group and stamps them with recognizable characteristics.

In the classroom, pupils gravitate towards those who are popular

²¹ F. Znaniecki, "Social Organizations and Institutions," in G. Gurvitch and W. E. Moore (Eds.), *Twentieth Century Sociology* (New York: The Philosophical Library, 1945), p. 18.

for one reason or another and form groups around them. In the American high school and college certain groups (e.g., fraternities, sororities, etc.) give the individual prestige, in fact, set him apart from others. For the guidance worker then recognition of the influence of organizational life upon personality development becomes essential.

The Communication Function

The primacy of communication as a medium of inter-personal relationships already has received wide attention. Expression of the attitudes and ideals of a people in the form of the printed or spoken word is being continually and forcefully pointed up by events both here and abroad. How else could our common purposes be translated into action if they were not communicated to us?

The transmission of language through such media as the radio, newspapers, and now television has brought people closer together than ever before in history. The provincialism of earlier days is now but a memory because of the many programs of information and entertainment possible to all. No longer are there "isolated" areas out of contact with daily events.

The farmer is one with the city dweller as far as access to the common culture is concerned. In fact, for all practical purposes farm life as depicted in the past no longer exists. The same general influences help shape the farm child that help shape the child in the city. Increasing numbers of farmers work in industry in off seasons and their children may live at the farm but attend schools in the nearby communities, coming into daily contact with influences common to all. Communication has thus tended to erase the distinction between urban and rural dweller. Exposure to a common culture gives all people a basis for mutual understanding and respect. The television aerial can now be seen atop the roofs of areas once considered inaccessible, areas the mention of which still gives rise to our folklore of "hillbillies" and quaint living customs.

Social Status and Behavior

American communities are not yet stratified in the same sense as are their European counterparts. Thus one must be careful in assigning all-inclusive concepts to social status in the American community.

Nevertheless certain writers²² see a definite correlation between behavior patterns and social status. Havighurst, for example, writes that:

A social class is probably not just a random sample of the total population of a society, with respect to basic personality structure. It shows systematic differences from other social classes of such a significance that one might find, for example, 50 per cent of one social class sharing a certain basic personality configuration, and not more than 35 per cent of any other class sharing this same configuration. Presumably, this degree of homogeneity is due to the cultural similarity of personality forming experience within a social class.²³

The increasing awareness of the effect of class structure on personality development is indicated by the research centers at various universities commissioned to explore this problem. The Research for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan is one of the more widely known research groups among others engaged in the development of theories with respect to the inter-relationship of groups, as well as with inter-personal relationships within groups themselves.

That the social position of the individual is important to the guidance worker—despite the dangers of categorization—few will deny. An individual's conduct is a reflection of the place which he sees himself as holding in the community. Social behavior represents the individual from this point of view. Personality has been summed up by some as the total of the individual's social behavior. Few will deny that personality mirrors the values and manners of the social group of which the individual concerned is a member. The "white collar" worker is characterized, for example, by distinctive characteristics with respect to clothes, interests, and the like. Thus the business executive views success in terms of an advance in pay or a promotion whereas to the farmer success is measured in terms of a bumper crop or healthy stock. The fact that the farmer leads a more tranquil existence also tends to make him a different personality. To sum it up there is enough evidence extant to state that personality development is largely a matter of the values and practices of the community in which one lives.

²² See, for example, R. B. Cattell, "The Cultural Functions of Social Stratification II: Regarding Individual and Group Dynamics," *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 21 (1948), pp. 25-26; and N. N. Springer, "The Influence of General Social Status on the Emotional Stability of Children," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, Vol. 53 (1938), pp. 321-328.

²³ H. J. Havighurst, "Social Class and Basic Personality Structure," *Sociology and Social Research*, Vol. 36 (1952), pp. 355-363.

Hollingshead's Study of Elmtown Youth. One of the most noteworthy projects in the field of social relations yet undertaken has been that by Hollingshead on the phenomenon of adolescent life. In this study an attempt was made specifically to explore the manner in which "the social system of a Middle Western Corn Belt community (Elmtown, Home State, U.S.A.) organizes and controls the behavior of high-school-aged adolescents reared in it."²⁴

The focal point of the investigation was a group of 735 adolescents (ages thirteen to nineteen) from 535 different families and about equally divided as to sex. Hollingshead's purpose was to analyze these adolescents both as individuals and as they were influenced by the community. To accomplish this purpose, he first made an exhaustive analysis of Elmtown's whole social structure. The data emerged out of several sources: observations on Elmtown affairs furnished by the townspeople (virtually all the town cooperated in the study), scheduled interviews, officials records, autobiographies, tests, the local newspaper (the *Elmtown Bugle*), historical pamphlets of the town and its founding, and visits with the subjects themselves, their parents, and the townspeople.

In describing the community, Hollingshead wrote, "Elmtown and its dependent institutional area may be said to be a 'typical Middle Western Community' functionally, structurally, culturally, and historically."²⁵ He had already assumed that the home and neighborhood were the primary socializing influences on Elmtown's youth, and that these influences would be reflected in their behavior. In fact, he insisted that, "The behavior patterns and conceptions of right and wrong, of self, of others, and of society learned by the child in the home and the neighborhood are carried into the school, the church, and other areas of community life."²⁶

The population of Elmtown was divided by Hollingshead into five more or less well-defined social classes or levels. "The main aspects of the social structure are linked together by the evaluation system which characterizes the culture," he stated. "'Who is who' and 'what is what' are determined by the way Elmtowners evaluate persons, ideas, things, functions and each other's actions."²⁷ In effect Hollingshead submitted that social position plays a major role in personality development. For example, he found that the old "frontier" notion

²⁴ A. B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth: The Impact of Social Classes on Adolescents* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1949), p. vii.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 65.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 442.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 66-67.

of accepting people on face value was being supplanted by more rigid notions of social status and family background.

The following is Hollingshead's description of Elmtown's class structure:

Class I: Individuals in this stratum inherited their wealth, lived in homes in the most exclusive districts, and owned two or three cars per family. Although they shunned publicity, it was they who were the leaders in community activities. These people owned a summer home and usually ran to cliques, and while members of a fashionable church, their attendance was not regular. Divorce was held to be a disgrace and the intact family was small (too many children divided the estate). Individuals in this class took a strong and unyielding stand for lower taxes, especially with respect to public schools, since education to them was considered to be primarily a "polishing" function. In Class I inherited wealth was a prime consideration and adherence to class behavior an unwritten law.

Class II individuals for the most part had worked for their wealth—although many were in the inherited-wealth class. These people belonged to the professional group, or were executives, or in some instances proprietors of a business. They owned at least one car, in some instances two, and lived in a superior residential area. The men were interested in matters related to civic leadership (e.g., membership in Chamber of Commerce, Rotary Club, etc.). The women on this level were members and officers in such organizations as the Daughters of the American Revolution, Country Club, and the like. While the men were occupied with civic responsibilities, the women busied themselves with different club activities. Both men and women were leaders in the church (predominantly Protestant). Class II people governed the town, by virtue of their superior education. Such civic leadership served as a major source of social prestige and as a ladder towards increased recognition.

Class III was composed in the main of small business men and professional persons who were in the \$2,000 to \$4,000 per annum (1941) earning brackets. They lived in five- to seven-room bungalows and were proud of their homes. Class III members were steady church goers as well as members of lodges and like social organizations. Their families generally were larger than those in Class II, causing the women in some cases to accept jobs. Class III members did not enjoy the educational standards of those in Class I or Class II. Nevertheless, Class III people were active in politics and social work. They were also very much aware of their "social status."

Class IV was composed of the artisans and industrial workers of

Elmtown. These people, 35 per cent of whom owned their own homes, earned their living generally "with their hands" according to Hollingshead. The men of Class IV were leaders in their labor organizations as well as in such social groups as the Eagles, Redmen, Woodmen, etc. (These organizations have women's auxiliaries to which many of the Class IV women belonged.) Fully one-third of the families of Class IV were marked by divorce or separation or like family problems affecting the adolescent. As a rule Class IV members were not active in church matters. Their education was, in general, limited to elementary level with the women's place considered to be in the home. The men were judged by their success in providing for their families.

Class V people were, according to Hollingshead, lowest on the social scale. Their earnings were meager (in 1941 between \$500 and \$1,500 per annum). And because of these small earnings they were either on relief or idle for long periods of time. Ninety-two per cent of the men were unskilled or semi-skilled workers. The women also held jobs (of the unskilled type) to supplement the family income. The family pattern was unstable, the men marrying in their late teens, the women in their middle teens. One-fourth to one-fifth of the children of Class V were illegitimate. Education was virtually non-existent, as was civic or club membership. Not too strangely, delinquency and crime rates were high with a generally hostile attitude towards society.

Having thus singled out and described Elmtown's social classes on the basis of his data, Hollingshead concluded that the child's personality already has been formed by the time he has reached the period designated as adolescence. For at that time, Hollingshead declared, the adolescent, "has developed conceptions of (1) himself; (2) the social structure; (3) his place in it along with appropriate roles and statuses; (4) forms of behavior, approved and disapproved; and (5) means of doing what he desires even though it involves the violation of law and the mores."²⁸

Social Status and Guidance. That social status plays a significant part in the personality development of the individual would seem to have been demonstrated by more than one research. There is, in fact, a psychological unreality in the separation of personality from the influences of the community which directly affects it. For the guidance worker an awareness of social status and its influence on behavior is vital since the individual does not have a life apart from that of his environment. Personality is measured in terms of the sur-

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 445.

roundings in which the individual lives. For example Harsh and Schrickel write that, "Each stratum of society—each cultural subgroup—tends to leave its mark on personality through habits of speech, respect for privacy and personal property, ambition emotionality Similarities of experience and training result in attitudes which are almost universal in certain areas or classes." And they conclude by saying, "Such are the prejudices between Northerners and Southerners, between white-collar workers and laborers, between Catholics and protestants Sharing the needs and frustrations of one of these groups, the child acquires similar attitudes of sympathizing with farmers or tall blondes, and mistrusting public officials or Jews."²⁹ In this respect it is evident from what can be ascertained that few cultural groups teach their children to treat all persons with equal consideration, a consideration for which the schools are equally responsible.

The concern with social-class influence on behavior is a recent phenomenon in psychological and sociological research—although many students of the subject long have been aware of its implications. Culture always has played some part in the development of personality. The classification of people within all-inclusive boundaries is, of course, still very difficult, particularly in a society which has been as fluid as that in America. The efforts to explore the subtle effects of social strata on personality have been handicapped for several reasons: (1) the democratic basis of American society, which holds the belief that all men are equal; (2) the ceaseless inter-change of individuals from one stratum to the next; and (3) lack of homogeneity, especially in urban areas. Certain class patterns, however, are being drawn up by social psychologists, who see the environment as a primary influence in personality development.

Summary

Personality is embedded in the pressures of society. The experiences which determine the course of its development are a product

²⁹ C. M. Harsh and H. G. Schrickel, *Personality: Development and Assessment* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1950), p. 164.

With respect to the problem of social status Ebersole states that, "although classes are not easily delineated, and although class members do not consciously identify themselves with a particular class, the existence of class groups is very real. The study of a society is incomplete without an analysis of its class structure." L. Ebersole, *American Society—An Introductory Analysis* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955), p. 261.

of the home and community as well as the school. If the child is accepted by his parents and treated with care and consideration he will reflect such treatment in his later behavior. Thoughtful parents will help the child to develop normally by affording him proper opportunities and challenges. If a child is sure of his parent's interest and affection he is more likely to develop along those lines considered necessary for the adjusted individual. An adequate home is thus seen as initiating and maintaining suitable conditions for the optimum development of the child or children, as the case may be.

The future of our way of living is dependent on the development of desirable citizens. The stable family lays the foundation of the stable society. Guidance of parents in the information and skills necessary to effective child rearing is a "must" for the community. This is because all facets of society are involved in the development of the future citizen. Thus more effective guidance services integrating home, school, and community are in order.

Suggested Problems

1. What parent-teacher contacts were afforded in the elementary school which you attended? Did your own parents make the optimum use of opportunities offered? Why? or Why not?
2. What opportunities for parent-teacher contacts are available in the elementary school of your neighborhood? Talk to a parent and find out if he thinks parent-teacher conferences are worth while.
3. What are some unique environmental conditions in your community which ought to be taken into consideration by school personnel?
4. In what ways do you think our schools may be perpetuating lines of social class?
5. A parent comes to the school and says, "I can't make my boy dress as he ought to for school . . . he wants to dress like the rest of the boys and *individually* I can't do anything about it. I think the school ought to make some regulations about dress."* How would you answer this parent?
6. You are a teacher and the children in your room are complaining because someone is taking things from their lunch pails. The someone is Susy. Susy comes from a very poor family and appears to be undernourished. On talking with her you discover that she never gets enough to eat, always feels hungry, and the temptation of food around her is too much for her. What would you do?

* She is referring to the boys' wearing beltless Levis with the waistband down around the hips.

7. Discuss this statement: People get the kind of community they deserve.

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Chapter 6

Techniques for Understanding the Individual

Thus far the aim of this text has been centered in an analysis of the theoretical framework which serves as a foundation for the organized guidance program. The present chapter, first of two on the subject, introduces the major techniques which have evolved from theory (and practice) for the appraisal of individual development. These techniques are discussed for clearer understanding against a background of the subject of human behavior generally. Procedures for studying the individual have a twofold purpose: (1) to enlighten the individual with respect to his strengths and weaknesses, and (2) to provide interested personnel with the widest possible information about the individual they are trying to help. The program of individual appraisal thus plays a primary role in the guidance function. All techniques, however, must be considered as adjuncts to the attainment of the goals of guidance, rather than final or even conclusive answers in themselves.

Background of the Evaluation Movement

The measurement of pupil progress and the subsequent evaluation of this testing are both an outcome of the scientific movement in education. This movement, brought about through scientific advance-

ment generally, focused the need for more *objective* information about each individual. Objectification, in turn, involves statistical-formulae verification and standardization of the data which are produced through testing. Personal judgment without the facts of objective testing has generally proved inadequate for the job of measuring individual development. Because of the limitations of early testing a number of the more subtle qualities of behavior appear now to have been overlooked. Nevertheless a whole new approach to the problem of measurement had begun, an approach which laid the basis for the modern measurement program. The new attitude to measurement was due to several factors, one of them a radical approach to the problem of behavior itself.

Behavioristic Psychology

The laboratories of the sciences—particularly biology and physiology—were the source of inspiration for psychologists attempting to isolate and measure certain facets of behavior in those early years. Not only were results of tests at first accepted as criteria for further judgment but entire procedures of instruction were formed on the basis of them. Instrumental in much of this emphasis upon strict objectivity was the theory of *behaviorism*—a theory still influential today—as initially advanced in America by John B. Watson.¹

Behaviorism and Watson, have, for all practical purposes, become synonymous terms in the lexicon of American psychology. As a doctrine, it is anchored in the belief that the movements of an organism are centralized in *stimulus-and-response behavior*. A stimulus is defined as any given factor which brings about behavior of some kind. The particular behavior brought out by the stimulus is called the response.

The attraction of so simplified a view of human conduct is evident, and its advantages were eagerly welcomed by the rising discipline of psychology. Behavioristic psychology presented a means for setting

¹ J. B. Watson, *Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1919).

One modern aspect of behaviorism is seen in the following statement by Dewey and Humber. They write that, "it is important that we see learning as a process which establishes relationships between many stimuli It cannot be overstressed that learning . . . involves the establishing of relationships between the individual and his environment. R. Dewey and W. J. Humber, *The Development of Human Behavior* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1951), p. 123.

forth certain pre-arranged stimuli (in the form of a lesson to be learned or a skill to be acquired) and then measuring the strength or duration of the responses to them. The basis of this kind of testing was centralized in the *reflex*, a term covering the relationship between stimulus and response, a relationship which it was assumed existed in the neurological structure of the organism.

Pavlov's Researches. The classic example of S-R psychology (as this reflexive action between stimulus and response is called) is to be seen in the extensive research with dogs carried out by Ivan Pavlov, the Russian physiologist. In accord with the assumption that reflex action is the clue to all behavior, Pavlov *conditioned* dogs to respond (salivate) to a bell after they had already been trained to respond to powdered meat. (Conditioning is thus the process of evoking like responses to different stimuli.) The bell, in Pavlov's experiments, was called the *unconditioned* stimulus because it followed the original or conditioned stimulus, the powdered meat. When the bell was rung at the same time (simultaneously) the powdered meat was presented to the dog, he began to salivate. In due time (varying with the degree of control exercised in a given experiment) the ringing of the bell alone was able to produce the salivation—the strength of the response being measured by the rate of its flow.

Obviously impressed by the results which arose from Pavlov's experimentation, Watson, in turn, proposed to measure human behavior also in terms of reflex action. Testing became, then, a comparatively simple task. All that was required under such conditions was to present a stimulus in the classroom (e.g., numbers or letters) and then measure the degree of achievement (e.g., mastery of arithmetical tables or improved spelling) on the part of the pupil in terms of his responses.

The years have, however, demonstrated quite clearly that this approach is an oversimplification of a very complex problem. Human beings—whatever the case with animals lower on the phylogenetic scale—do not respond to their environment in any one-for-one correlation such as behaviorism implies. Instead, there is ample evidence to show how *diffuse* behavior really is. To isolate specific stimuli and the responses they are presumed to bring out is neither a simple nor a direct process. The organism, it is true, does respond to stimuli, but what can not be overlooked are the numerous other factors which enter into the response (e.g., past experiences, present emotional state, etc.). As proof of this last statement think of the different responses

which take place in answer to like stimuli during periods of stress particularly.

The above considerations, however, do not rule out the really significant contributions of behaviorism. In fact, without these contributions much of the data of psychology would have large gaps. What should be clear, however, is that there would appear to be more to behavior than a mere stimulus-and-response connection, invaluable though this concept has proved to be in appraising the individual.

Other Factors in the Development of the Testing Movement. There were other men and other forces in society which made possible the rise of the testing movement. Charles Darwin's theory of evolution, Herbert Spencer's sociological contributions, and William James's philosophy of pragmatism were leading forces in the establishment of new modes of thought. Karl Pearson and Francis Galton provided the testing movement with the statistical methods it had to have in order to become a reliable means for appraising behavior.

Important above all others, perhaps, are the contributions of Alfred Binet of France, who towards the end of the 19th century provided testing with the kind of practical framework it required. Through his research into the nature of intelligence and the scale needed to measure it, more precise measurement was made possible. A foundation of mathematical formulae helps insure authenticity of results in testing.

One of the flaws now apparent in the early testing movement was its reliance on the results of testing alone to the exclusion of other equally important considerations.

Those tests which make claims at all-inclusiveness tend to overlook the complex relationship of the individual to his environment. One must also consider in this respect the discipline of mathematics itself. Mathematics is but one means of interpreting through the prior use of symbols that which investigators believe exists in the external world. Mathematics does not always in itself provide absolute nor even certain answers as witness the effect of Einstein's concepts upon many heretofore sacrosanct mathematical theories. It would be wise to remember, as Guilford writes, that, "Every measurement that we make is, in a sense, an error, for it deviates from the true value that we want to find, and it deviates even from the average. Only in very rare cases does any one measurement actually coincide with the

average. And whether or not the average itself even coincides with the true value, we can never know."²

The Dynamics of Human Behavior

The emergence of the theory of behaviorism and its subsequent development into one of the more prominent of American psychologies brought in its wake repercussions which, perhaps, never were envisioned by its followers. For too long in the past men had believed that human behavior was "innate" or a matter of heredity alone. Watson's doctrine at least succeeded in shaking many out of their dogmatism forcing them to re-evaluate the influence of the environment in human behavior. This brings the discussion to the problem of the *dynamics* of behavior.

Techniques of guidance are concerned primarily with *what* the individual does, viz., what he answers in test situations, what he does as a result of counseling, and the like questions. But the *what* of behavior is obviously subordinate to the *why*. Movement, at least from the standpoint of the observer, is the distinguishing characteristic of the life process. But why man moves makes up one of the most fascinating (albeit still puzzling) problems of mankind, for apparently movement is neither random nor disorganized. If it were, the organism would exhaust itself until what has been designated as death (or an observable cessation of movement) took place. To forestall such an eventuality the individual somehow learns to seek out those sources which help him stay alive. Why and how he goes about meeting the requirements of living have come to be called the dynamics of human behavior. In his monumental work *Folkways* the pioneer social scientist William Graham Sumner wrote as follows:

Men begin with acts, not thoughts. Every movement brings necessities which must be satisfied at once. Need was the first experience, and it was followed at once by a blundering effort to satisfy it The earliest efforts of men were of this kind. Need was the impelling force

² J. P. Guilford, *Psychometric Methods* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936), p. 23.

In this respect Cohen writes that: "Most of the data that the social scientist deals with are observational rather than experimental. Observations are made in the real world and not in an experimental one. The science of statistics provides techniques for artificially controlling factors when we are dealing with observational data." L. Cohen, *Statistical Methods for Social Scientists* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1954), p. 1.

Thus ways of doing things were selected which were expedient. They answered the purpose better than other ways, or with less toil and pain. Along the course on which efforts were compelled to go, habit, routine, and skill were developed. The struggle to maintain existence was carried on, not individually, but in groups.³

It already has been recorded in some detail in a previous chapter how need serves as a motivating agent in behavior. He who would observe behavior must first understand what lies behind this behavior. Simply stated to study the individual as he moves about presupposes some knowledge of human needs or drives.

For example, the "ambitious" student evidently sparked by the drive to succeed will study much more than the student who is indifferent to such considerations. In this respect, it should be mentioned that techniques of appraisal can not directly measure motivation. However, inferences can be made through measuring such factors as the extent and intensity of a given response. Ambition, itself, for example, is not measured; it is inferred from responsive behavior.

Again, interest may serve as a drive to succeed in school subjects. Whereas one pupil may be extremely enthusiastic and work hard at mathematics, another individual unable to master its complexities may be bored and accept failure.

In any case if the observer is aware of the antecedent conditions in a given instance of learning it remains only to check the results of the assignment against the learner's status before he began to study for that assignment. Thus for a standard of measurement for his techniques the observer need only find the degree to which the behavior has changed.

Behavior is thus far our only evident source of appraisal. But any technique must be set against the many factors involved in any one individual act. The child, for instance, who is upset by parental domination may score low in academic tests but that does not necessarily mean that under more tranquil circumstances he would not score higher.

Adjustment and "Depth" Psychology

Measurement of individual behavior, as has been indicated, requires insight into both the causes of this behavior and the conditions under

³ William Graham Sumner, *Folkways* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940), p. 2.

which it takes place. It is to Sigmund Freud⁴ (1856-1939), a Viennese physician, that we owe much of our present understanding of the influence of early childhood training as a major factor in later behavior patterns.

Freud's work has also provided much needed information concerning the "deeper" causes of neuroses and psychoses (extreme forms of maladjustment). In fact, it would not be out of the way to assert that Freud's work with the "unconscious" has influenced modern thinking in almost every area of our culture. Whole new horizons have been opened, not only in psychiatry but in education, ethics, sociology, and the like disciplines.

Freud formulated a theory, startling to many of his contemporaries, in which sex, or as he called this basic drive, the *libido*, is the prime motivating agent of behavior. According to Freud the mind is composed of its conscious and unconscious (sometimes called the sub-conscious) aspects. The conscious part of the mind is our everyday thinking as expressed in our approach to the world. But, according to Freud, the unconscious, or the "hidden" aspect of the mind (*psyche*) is all filled up with materials of high emotional content.

These materials acquired in our growth and development are believed forgotten by the individual but are, in reality, repressed because of conflict between the sex drive and the mores or standards of our society. Because of this repression Freud believed that to help disturbed personalities one had to first dig deep into the unconscious (through the layers of the conscious built up by conformity to social or personal standards) and then expose its emotional contents to the healing processes of the conscious mind.

In further amplification of his thinking Freud offered three other concepts important in understanding behavior, the concepts of the *id*, *ego*, and *superego*, which represent three phases of individual development. The infant starts out in life with only the *id*. A baby has only a few "instincts" that must be satisfied, viz., sucking, freedom from pain, freedom of motion, and hunger. Interference with any of the above instincts causes the baby to react emotionally. However as times goes by it learns that its needs can not always be satisfied when it comes into contact with parental discipline. At this point the child

⁴ Sigmund Freud, *A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis* (New York: Boni and Liveright, 1920).

See also Anna Freud, *Introduction to Psycho-Analysis for Teachers; Four Lectures* (London: George Allen and Unwin, 1949).

starts to adjust to the real world, a process that brings on the ego, which controls the id for practical reasons.

As the child develops he learns further to distinguish right from wrong as defined by his society. Through his elders he comes to learn about morality. With this knowledge his "conscience" begins to operate and now the superego acts as a monitor. The ego represents what one truly is, according to the orthodox Freudians. It represents the measure of success of the individual's efforts to bring the id under control and to govern one's life by the superego.

The Oedipus Complex. One of the key principles of psychoanalysis is the *oedipus complex* (another aspect of the id). According to the story Oedipus, son of Laius and Jocasta, the king and queen of ancient Thebes, unwittingly slew his father and later married his mother. It happened in this way. At Oedipus's birth an oracle had warned King Laius that someday he would be killed by his son. Unwilling to slay his own child Laius handed Oedipus over to a herdsman who was to expose the baby to the elements. In this way Laius hoped to rid himself of a future threat to his life.

The herdsman, instead, gave Oedipus to a friend of his, who raised the child to manhood. Eventually Polybus, King of Corinth, came to adopt Oedipus. Having been warned by an oracle that he would slay his father and wed his mother, Oedipus fled from his home. On the way, he encountered Laius, and unaware of his real father's identity killed him in a quarrel.

Having thus slain his father, Oedipus journeyed on to Thebes, a city then sorely distressed. Because he solved the riddle of the Sphinx and saved the city from destruction, the Thebans rewarded him by making him their king. Oedipus married Jocasta, eventually discovering her relationship to him. Because of his terrible grief, Oedipus tore his eyes out. Jocasta, equally horrified, hanged herself.

Freud, for his own part, concluded that this drive (sexual desire for the mother) was innate in all men. On the basis of this drive—as indicated in the male infant's behavior—he worked out his concept of the Oedipus complex, namely, that every male infant's instincts are to do as Oedipus had done. Jealousy of the father thus plays a dominant role in childhood behavior. Every female infant, conversely, possesses the drive to slay her mother because of love for the father.

While such a theory may seem farfetched to some people, there is evidence to indicate that jealousy of the opposite parent does exist. The Freudian orthodoxy has of late been watered down or rather, re-interpreted in terms of newer meanings. Modern psychoanalysts

(Karen Horney,⁵ Erich Fromm, Otto Rank, Franz Alexander, etc.) have insisted that Freud's original views had been too narrowly conceived. Instead of laying the causes of deviant behavior exclusively to so-called instinctual drives, the more modern trend in psychoanalysis has been to broaden the theory to include the constantly impinging pressures of society as a cause of neuroses and psychoses. It is apparent now that child behavior is influenced by many other factors, and that sex, while a prime motivation, is not the only one. A number of concepts common to psychoanalysis are now used in the guidance area. Pupil personnel specialists have used with varying degrees of success techniques based upon Freudian theory. Much of Freud's thinking has been filtered into guidance viewpoints generally, especially as they relate to serious problems of maladjustment.

Rogers's Self Theory

Recent techniques for understanding the individual have been widely influenced by the self theory of Karl Rogers of the University of Chicago. Briefly stated Roger's theory is based upon an intensely personal and subjective relationship between counselor and client. While giving Freud due credit, Rogers substitutes his own method of providing a "climate" during therapy which permits the client to realize himself. Rogers has always emphasized empathy, i.e., the ability to sense the client's private life as if it were the counselor's own. In this way the counselor can help the client develop courses of action which appear both logical and necessary. Without any overt direction at least, the client is able to grasp reality for what it is, without beclouding it with fear or confusion.

It is obvious that how a person behaves is significantly determined by his perception of himself in a continually changing world, a world in which he is the central figure. If emotional disturbances distort his perception, he comes into conflict with the world about him. It is necessary that the individual have a proper perspective of himself and his relationship to others. A person's basic values, ideals, and beliefs furnish the clue to his "internalized" frame of reference. The importance of such considerations are thus obvious. Prejudice against different ethnic groups, for example, could indicate insecurity on the part of the individual holding such prejudices.

⁵ See, for example, K. Horney, *New Ways in Psychoanalysis* (New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1939).

Thus, in addition to objectively observing and measuring in cause-and-effect relationship the actions or movements of a child (behaviorists), especially from infancy (psychoanalysts), it is important to determine how the child perceives himself in his environment (self-theorists), and how that environment has influenced him (social theorists).

Pupil Appraisal and Evaluation

Techniques presently employed in the appraisal of individuals are based upon accuracy of measurement and objectivity of reporting. Certain concepts have become evident in the use of the various techniques employed by the school in analyzing the individual student. For example, after carefully studying the needs of the Kalamazoo, Michigan, public school system to obtain adequate information concerning its students a "cumulative records committee" appointed by the superintendent of schools reached the following conclusions:

1. School records have an immediate value and a permanent value in aiding students in school and after leaving school.
2. The keeping of school records should be, in the main, for the purpose of assisting students. Only such records as are found of value in accomplishing these ends should be accumulated and filed permanently.
3. Certain school records should be used discriminately and treated as professional information.⁶

There is now wide acceptance of the belief that the optimum understanding of an individual emerges only after a complete study has been made by several professional workers who have observed and measured the individual with scientific instruments for several years or more. It is also important to recognize in any assessment of the individual that behavior is caused; and it is necessary to appraise the individual in terms of the internal and external forces motivating him.

Prediction. The major criterion by which to judge the quality of information concerning an individual is how well those data will help that individual and those concerned with guiding him to predict a future behavior. When a science teacher, for example, advises a student to take up a career in engineering, that teacher is making a prediction of success. This judgement of future success has evolved

⁶ Quoted in C. E. Erickson and M. E. Hopp, *Guidance Practices at Work* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946), p. 242.

from the teacher's interpretation of data concerning the boy's behavior, motivation, etc. If these data are inaccurate or the interpretation faulty, a grievous error may have been made.

Counselors and teachers have been amazed many times to see the shy seventh grader become popular in college. Again, there is the case of the failing high school pupil who after four years in the military service returns to complete high school and to excel in college. At what point a valid prediction may be made, by either the pupil or his counselor or teacher, is a matter of judgment and timing. The accuracy and completeness of the information about the individual are thus a key to any predictions.

The Student's Individual Record

As previously indicated, the information about a pupil should serve two purposes: (1) to help the pupil better understand himself and then in turn chart his future with greater assurance, and (2) to provide information for the teachers, guidance specialists, administrators, and parents to furnish guidance for each pupil. This can be accomplished only by coordinated and systematic individual inventory service. According to Traxler⁷ a recognized leader in the field of pupil records, the following elements should be included in the developmental record of each pupil.

1. Identification data (personal)
 - a. Vital statistics
 - b. Self reports
2. Home-community data
 - a. Parents, siblings and their activities
 - b. Socio-economic and other environmental forces of community
3. Health and physical growth data
 - a. History of childhood diseases and immunizations
 - b. Growth data
4. School history
 - a. Attendance history
 - b. Scholastic grades
 - c. Co-curricular activities
5. Ability
 - a. Scholastic aptitude as measured by tests
 - b. Teacher evaluation of ability

⁷ A. E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), pp. 29-32.

6. Aptitudes
 - a. Special talents or skills
 - b. Aptitude test scores
7. Achievement
 - a. Test scores of scholastic achievements
 - b. Teacher evaluation of pupil programs
8. Interests
 - a. Test scores
 - b. Interests indicated from hobbies and other activities
9. Personality
 - a. Adjustment test scores
 - b. Sociometric scores
 - c. Anecdotal reports
10. Out of school activities
 - a. Employment records
 - b. Church
 - c. Youth and other group activities
11. Plans for future
 - a. Educational plans
 - b. Vocational plans

The enormous task of gathering data about each individual again points up the need for team work among teachers, pupil personnel workers, administrators, and even pupils and parents. The work of keeping records up-to-date and available for assistance to pupils has, at times, reduced counselors to clerks and caused many elementary and secondary teachers to leave the profession.

All too often elementary schools have developed records which are not transferred with the pupils as they move into the secondary schools, causing them to lose much of their value. Secondary schools have also been remiss in this regard failing, for example, to make proper use of the records sent on to them. The task of preparing adequate individual records will become confused unless the guidance staff has provided an in-service training program which presents a proper perspective of pupil data. Incidentally, there seems to be a kind of wavering back and forth in favoring or opposing objective-test data as opposed to other informally collected data. On this point, Thorndike and Hagen write as follows: "Test results gain meaning and significance in relation to other life experiences. The attempt should be made to relate the test findings to other experiences in and out of school. Where the results and other experiences, i.e., of academic or work success, are congruent, they serve to reinforce and give meaning to each other."⁸

⁸ R. L. Thorndike and E. Hagen, *Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education*, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1955), p. 498.

Techniques for Gathering Data

When a school counselor is asked about a pupil, whether it is by the teacher, parent, administrator, or even the pupil himself, the questions usually fall into one of the following three categories:

1. How is the pupil maturing in terms of personal-social development?
2. What is he capable of doing? How well is he functioning according to his abilities and aptitudes?
3. What is he interested in doing? What motivates (and controls) his behavior?

These three categories provide the foundation for data-gathering techniques. That is to say, techniques of guidance are designed in terms of information gained from these questions. Obviously all of the categories are inter-related and it follows that one must base techniques for gathering data on the over-all picture rather than concentrating on specific details. Descriptions of behavior patterns tend to be more valid when they are based upon all possible facets of the individual. The growth process is a continuous one and can not be split up arbitrarily.

Need for Gathering Pupil Data. There are perhaps two general times when the need to gather data about a pupil must be determined. They are: *first*, when the school must make any decision concerning the pupil, and, *second*, when the individual faces the task of making choices, or exercising rights of self-determination. Connected with the first are such considerations as the entrance of the child into kindergarten or any other grade level, problems of promotion or retention, recommendation for any activity, or when symptoms of adjustment problems become manifest. The second emphasizes the right of each pupil to have adequate data about himself and his environment so that he can make effective decisions.⁹ Concomitantly, if the school staff make a decision about a child without adequate data then they are not being fair with the pupil. Neither the school staff nor the pupil can attempt to plan a course of action without sufficient information about the individual and his environment. Neglect of such

⁹ E. C. Roeber, G. E. Smith, and C. E. Erickson, *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955), p. 2.

information will more than likely increase rather than decrease the problems.

Child-Study Programs. Techniques of gathering data about a child have little meaning or value unless the teacher and counselor are skillful at their task. It is fortunate that across the nation several organizations have come into existence to help guidance workers develop understanding and skill in this area. One of the best of these programs is the Maryland Child Study Plan established by the University of Maryland under Daniel Prescott. Many colleges and universities, P.T.A.'s, and mental-health associations have sponsored such programs. Teachers and counselors should be encouraged to join these groups in order to improve their understanding and skills and also in order to be able to facilitate the over-all program.

Covina School District Research and Pupil Personnel Services (California). This district has developed a systematic procedure for identifying, appraising, and referring pupils. The forms utilized were constructed through the cooperative efforts of the Pupil Personnel Services staff under the direction of Thomas Smith, and are reproduced here by special permission (Forms 6-1 to 6-10). Each form is self-explanatory. It is evident that their proper use involves teachers, principals, and pupil personnel specialists working as a team. Identification of pupils with problems, it is obvious, begins with the teacher.

FORM 6-1

COVINA SCHOOL DISTRICT Research & Pupil Personnel Services

TEACHER SURVEY OF CLASSROOM PROBLEMS

Teacher _____ School _____ Grade _____ Date _____

NOTE TO TEACHERS

Of all school personnel the classroom teacher is best situated to identify pupils with problems. The learning process can be delayed or obstructed by uncorrected problems. Early identification is basic to early correction. The Covina School District is organized to help teachers work with the type of problems listed below.

In some classrooms you may have one or more pupils to list under each category. Since nearly all pupils have some problem, a rough criterion for whom to list would be: "Does the severity of the pupil's problem suggest the possible need for an adopted educational program and/or specialized teaching or guidance services?"

LIST NAMES* OF PUPILS AND RETURN SURVEY TO PRINCIPAL

Educational Problems

Academically retarded: Pupils with apparently normal intelligence who are unable to use it, particularly in reading. They are "discouraged" and "reluctant."

Very rapid learners: Pupils with apparently high academic aptitude or with IQ's of 130 or higher who may need some specially planned work.

Very slow learners: Pupils with apparently low academic aptitude or with IQ's of 75 or lower who should be considered for special education classes.

Grade Placement: Pupils whose age, ability, size and social interests suggest that they may be too old or too young for the grade they are in.

Social and Emotional Problems

Aggressive: Pupils who aggressively interfere in the lives of others by fighting, behaving in an unrestrained fashion, or defying rules and regulations.

* Please circle the name of any pupil needing *immediate* help.

Please double-check cumulative records on all pupils listed.

Withdrawn: Pupils who are extremely shy, timid, fearful, quiet or tense and who find it difficult to be in group activities or to be relaxed when with others. Their feelings are readily hurt and they are easily discouraged.

General: Pupils who do not exhibit either extreme aggressive or extreme withdrawn behavior but who are generally troubled and unhappy. They are nervous, inattentive, erratic and generally non-productive.

Physical Problems

Attendance: Pupils who are absent frequently or who have had prolonged illnesses that have caused them to miss a significant part of their learning activities (10% or more).

Speech: Pupils whose speech is immature, distorted, unpleasant, or halting and is either an immediate or potential problem to them.

General: Pupils who complain about their eyes, ears, etc., or who seem either under strain or indifferent during learning activities calling for good vision or good hearing; also pupils who appear chronically fatigued or have some known physical defect that restricts their activities to some degree.

FORM 6-2

COVINA SCHOOL DISTRICT
Research & Pupil Personnel Services

TEACHER'S GUIDE FOR STUDYING PUPILS

TEACHER RESPONSIBILITIES: STEP-BY-STEP OF PUPIL STUDY (Please check steps taken)

- ☐ Step 1. "Talk with your principal" for suggestion on ways to approach problem behaviors, parent contacts, etc.; counseling regarding your own feelings about problems, etc.; continuity with past records of behavior, etc. (Secure "Behavior Report" and others as needed.)
- ☐ Step 2. Observe and note behavior patterns for "leads" to situations that "trigger" recurrent problem behaviors. (Record information on "Behavior Report.")
- ☐ Step 3. Review cumulative records for information on attendance, grades, health, interests, abilities, achievement, etc. (Record information on "Educational Report.")
- ☐ Step 4. Talk with previous teachers for "pointers" on motivating and controlling; also interests, attitudes, friendship patterns, etc. (Record information on "Behavior Report.")
- ☐ Step 5. Consult with nurse to check possible health factors frequently related to behavior and learning problems (i.e., vision, hearing, chronic illnesses and/or absenteeism, history of illness, accident or handicap in early childhood. (Record information on Educational Report.)
- ☐ Step 6. Interview and counsel pupil for cues as to child's awareness of problems and ways of working them out; attitudes toward self, school, classmates, etc. (Record information on Pupil Interview Report.)
- ☐ Step 7. Arrange parent conference for information from the "senior partners" on the child's attitudes toward the school, home and the world in general; also suggestions on ways of controlling, motivating, etc.; family membership, activities, etc. (Record information on Parent Interview Report.)

PROCEDURES FOR REFERRAL TO PUPIL PERSONNEL OFFICE

When the teacher and principal decide that specialized help is needed to round out their study of a particular child, the principal asks the teacher to complete the "Reports" specified above. The principal sends two copies of the Request for Pupil Personnel Services to the Pupil Personnel Office. The role of members of this office is essentially that of "specialized helpers" for parents, teachers, and others in guiding children. They work closely with the teacher and local school staff to integrate all that is known about each child and to unify around the work of the classroom teacher as far as possible all the efforts which are made to develop an adequate program of remedial education.

FORM 6-3

COVINA SCHOOL DISTRICT
Research & Pupil Personnel Services

Pupil's Name _____ Date _____ School _____
 Grade _____ Teacher _____

EDUCATIONAL REPORT

The teacher may obtain this information from the following sources; cumulative records, health records, registration card, teacher's register, observation and conferences.

ATTENDANCE	Date pupil entered this school _____		No. of previous schools attended _____						
	Name of last previous school attended _____								
	Name _____		City _____						
	What grades has the pupil repeated? _____		Accelerated? _____						
	Number of days absent this year: _____		No. of times tardy: _____						
GRADES	Reasons for absence or tardiness _____								
	Number of days absent in previous grades:								
	Grade	Kgr:	1:	2:	3:	4:	5:	6:	7:
	Reasons for excessive absence in any grade: _____								
	In what school activities has the pupil received his best marks? Indicate the marks obtained (both past and present): _____								
HEALTH	In what school activities has the pupil received his poorest marks? Indicate the marks obtained (both past and present): _____								
	Does the Health Record Card indicate any problems connected with vision, hearing or previous illness? _____								
	What is the pupil's general physical appearance (cleanliness, coordination, development): _____								
	What are the chief interests of this pupil? _____								
	What responsibilities does the pupil have in the classroom and in the school? _____								
In what classroom activities has the pupil had at least a moderate feeling of success? _____									

Educational Test Information

A. Intelligence Tests

Date Test Was Given	Name of Test	In What Grade	Total IQ	Lang. IQ	Non-L IQ	Comments

B. Achievement Tests

Date Test Was Given	Name of Test	In What Grade	Reading			Arithmetic			Lang.	Tot.
			Voc.	Comp.	Tot.	Reas.	Fund.	Tot.		

Comments:

What is your impression of pupil's ability to learn, present achievement status, and major learning problems:

 Signature of the teacher

FORM 6-4

COVINA SCHOOL DISTRICT
Research & Pupil Personnel Services

Pupil's Name _____ Date _____ School _____
 Grade _____ Teacher _____

BEHAVIOR REPORT

To understand behavior it is important to observe the pupil's reactions on the playground, in the neighborhood, and at home. Check words or phrases that describe the behavior of the pupil as you have observed it. Please feel free to individualize the report as much as possible by adding descriptive comments. If you know of reasons for the conditions you check, please jot them down at the right of your answers.

IS THIS PUPIL PHYSICALLY STRONG?

- Is strong and active
- Seldom tires
- Has ordinary endurance
- Is listless, easily fatigued

- Impulsive
- Stubborn
- Moody

ARE THERE EVIDENCES OF EMOTIONAL TENSION OR NERVOUSNESS?

- Is upset by changes in routine
- Is extremely irritable; unduly annoyed by noise.
- Often cries
- Is extremely restless and hyperactive
- Stutters, speech is often blocked or garbled
- Complains about his health
- Bites nails, fidgets, masturbates
- Has a poor appetite, is finicky
- Nauseated frequently
- Has tremors, nervous tics, or jerking
- Lacks bowel or bladder control in school
- Complains of headaches or dizziness
- Fainting occasionally
- Has temper tantrums

DOES HE HAVE GOOD WORK HABITS?

- Completes what he starts
- Is able to evaluate his work
- Capable of sustained attention
- Needs urging to stay with a task
- Is easily discouraged
- Seldom completes the job
- Easily distractible

HOW DOES HE GET ALONG WITH OTHERS?

- Is a successful leader
- Works and plays well with others
- Earns recognition
- Prefers to work by himself
- Is destructive
- Has bad temper when thwarted
- Is quarrelsome
- Is over-aggressive
- Is easily led
- Often lies to get out of difficulty
- Is disobedient to teachers
- Has few friends
- Is disliked and avoided by peers.

IS HE SELF-CONFIDENT?

- Recites in class and talks freely in group
- Is willing to play games though unskilled
- Takes pride in appearance or physique
- Worries about personal popularity, success
- Worries about family problems
- Participates freely in most group activity
- Makes excuses for his failure
- Is overly discouraged by criticism, failure
- Daydreams a great deal in school
- Is boastful about self and accomplishments
- Is reluctant to participate in group activity such as: sports, discussions, parties.

WHAT IS HIS USUAL DISPOSITION?

- Cheerful, happy
- Kind and sympathetic
- Self-controlled, calm
- Quiet, reserved

1. What specific behaviors cause the pupil the most trouble? _____

2. What forms of control have you used with the pupil? How does he respond? _____

Why is he usually punished? _____

For what is he praised? _____

3. What have you found to be the most satisfactory ways of handling the pupil? _____

4. How does he act when he fails? _____

5. How does he act when he succeeds? _____

6. What do you consider to be the pupil's chief problem, and what do you think is the cause? _____

Signature of the teacher

FORM 6-5

COVINA SCHOOL DISTRICT
Research & Pupil Personnel Services

PUPIL INTERVIEW REPORT

Pupil's Name _____ Date _____ School _____

Grade _____ Teacher _____

My easiest schoolwork:

My hardest schoolwork:

My best way to remember things:

Who helps me at home:

I want to learn about:

My hobbies:

My favorite games and sports:

My favorite friends:

Who is in my family:

The work my parents do:

Favorite things I do with my folks:

About my health:

What I want to be:

People say I do best in:

My three wishes:

How can I help myself:

INTERVIEW NOTES

Signature

PUPIL SELF-EVALUATION

For pupils in the middle and upper grades who can read, the following material may be used. It is most appropriately used when the pupil feels that the purpose of the interview is to HELP him.

WORK HABITS AND CITIZENSHIP

Put an X along the lines below to best describe your rating at this time.

	Seldom	Usually	Always
Finish work			
Use time wisely			
Use self-control			
Accept suggestions			
Observe school rules			
Courteous to others			
Assume responsibility			
Cooperate with class			
Follow directions			

Where can I improve my school citizenship? Underline:

bus classroom halls playground cafeteria

In what ways can I improve? _____

ACADEMIC EFFORT

	Seldom	Usually	Always
Read assignments			
Look up information			
Reason things out			
Report information to class			
Ask questions			
Write carefully			
Check spelling errors			
Prepare reports on time			

In what class work do I have the ability to do better work than I am now doing? _____

How can I improve my work? _____

	Low	High
My interest in school is		
My ability to do school work is		
My effort in school is		
My success in school is		

What I think about school _____

7. What forms of discipline have been used? How often? How does he respond?
8. What way have you found to be the most satisfactory manner of guiding your child?
9. What special jobs does the child have around the home? What does he do best? What is the hardest for him?
10. Are there any health problems that may be related to the child's behavior?
11. What does he like to do in his spare time?
12. What do you consider to be the child's chief problem and what do you think are the causes?

Signature

FORM 6-7

COVINA SCHOOL DISTRICT

NURSE FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Child's Name _____ Birthdate _____ Sch. _____
 Gr. _____ Sex _____ Nationality _____ Language in Home _____
 Height-Weight _____ inches _____ pounds Date _____
 _____ inches _____ pounds Date _____
 Vision: Date _____ Right eye _____ Left eye _____
 Corrected: Right eye _____ Left eye _____
 Hearing: Date _____ Right ear _____ Left ear _____
 Hearing defect _____
 Speech: _____
 Teeth: _____
 Nutritional condition: _____
 Health History: What illnesses, accidents, operations, birth injuries has the child had?
 Age _____ Type of Illness, etc. _____

 Developmental history: Are there any evidences of late development of walking, talking, bladder control, etc.?

 General physical appearance: _____
 Recommendations: _____

 Date: _____ Nurse: _____

FORM 6-8

COVINA SCHOOL DISTRICT

DEVELOPMENTAL HISTORY

Child's Name _____ Age _____ Birthdate _____ Date _____
 Sch. _____
 Grade _____ Sex _____ Nationality _____ Language in Home _____
 Informant _____ Relationship to Child _____

1. Where was child born? (e.g., home, hospital, city, state).
2. Describe pregnancy (e.g., duration, mother's health and illnesses, accidents, doctor's care).

3. Describe delivery (e.g., length, difficulty, breach, use of instruments, surgery, anoxia).
 4. Describe child's illnesses and accidents to age of 6.
 5. Describe problems of feeding or diet.
 6. Describe problems of sleeping and rest.
 7. At what age did he (she) begin to
 - a. Sit
 - b. walk
 - c. run
 - d. ride tricycle
 - e. skip
 - f. ride bicycle
 8. Describe his (her) process of learning to talk (include ages in months or years).
 9. At what age did the first teeth appear?
 10. Describe the child as he (she) is *at present* with reference to the following:
 - a. *Motor behavior* (include handedness and manner of manipulation of objects).
 - b. *Language behavior* (include sounds and gestures).
 - c. *Play behavior* (include toys).
 - d. *Domestic behavior* (feeding, dressing, toilet, co-operation).
 - e. *Emotional behavior* (dependency, management, playmates, specific behavior deviations).
 - f. *Health problems*.
-

FORM 6-9

COVINA SCHOOL DISTRICT
Research & Pupil Personnel Services
REQUEST FOR DIAGNOSTIC SERVICES

Name _____ Gr. _____ Teach. _____ Sch. _____ AM _____ PM _____
Birth- _____ Mother _____
Address _____ Ph. _____ Date _____ Works Days? _____

TYPE OF CASE (Check appropriate items. If more than one item is checked, number in order of importance.)

- ☐ Academically Retarded
- ☐ Academically Gifted
- ☐ Slow Learning Pupil
- ☐ Grade Adjustment Problem
- ☐ Social-Emotional Problem
- ☐ Attendance Problem

Information Available:

- _____ Parent Interview Report
- _____ Pupil Interview Report
- _____ Behavior Report
- _____ Educational Report

Principal's Signature _____

(Do not write below this line)

FORM 6-10

COVINA SCHOOL DISTRICT
Research & Pupil Personnel Services

REPORT OF DIAGNOSTIC SERVICES: SUMMARY

Name _____ Gr. _____ Teach. _____ Sch. _____ AM _____ PM _____

Dates of Service:

Address _____ Ph. _____ Birth _____ From: _____

To: _____

TYPE OF CASE:

Referred by _____ Received by _____

CONFERENCES

☐ Principal
☐ Teacher
☐ Nurse
☐ Parents
☐ Pupil
☐ P.P. Staff
☐
☐

RECORDS

☐ Cumulative
☐ Anecdotal
☐ Teacher Reports

TESTS

☐ Intelligence
☐ Achievement
☐ Attitudes
☐ Projective

OBSERVATION

☐ Classroom
☐ Playground
☐ Home

IQ SCORES

Full Scale	Verbal Scale	Performance Scale

REPORTS AVAILABLE

ACHIEVEMENT SCORES

Reading	Arithmetic	Spelling

SUMMARY OF INFORMATION AND IMPRESSIONS:

INTELLIGENCE

ACHIEVEMENT

PHYSICAL

HOME

SCHOOL

See "Guidance Notes" for plans,
suggestions, etc.

The Information-Gathering Interview

Possibly no other procedure is more widely used for gathering information than the interview since it provides opportunity for the interviewee to express his thoughts and feelings and gives the interviewer a chance to explore and evaluate as he moves along. As the interview is the child's vehicle of communication in counseling and is covered more completely in Chapters 11 and 12, it is merely introduced here in order to augment the present discussion. There are, however, certain specialized characteristics of the information-gathering interview which must be considered at this point.

1. The interviewer should provide the interviewee full opportunity to express his point of view or his "side of the story."
2. The interviewer should avoid a set pattern of information getting that might be structured by a form. Rather, the pattern of questioning should vary from individual to individual. This does not mean that the completed interview report should not cover a pre-determined area of information.
3. Care should be taken to avoid using this interview as an inquisition or as a method of satisfying the curiosity of a teacher.
4. If the interviewee "tells more" than he feels he should during the interview he may later resent the interviewer.

It should be immediately obvious that the interview is limited in use with younger children if only because it is difficult for them to express and explain what they think and feel. Children can, however, express themselves through other activities like play and work. Observation of these activities can reveal information indicative of patterns of behavior. However, with respect to children entering kindergarten or those transferring from one elementary school to another, an interview is advisable.

Questionnaires

How wonderful it would be if the counselor could interview each pupil as he entered and left school with the teacher continuing the process in between. But this would be dreaming indeed. In lieu of any such wonders there remains the questionnaire, an instrument

FORM 6-11 INFORMATION BLANK

PASADENA CITY SCHOOLS PASADENA, CALIFORNIA INFORMATION BLANK

School ELIOT JUNIOR HIGH
Date _____
Grade _____
Boy _____ Girl _____
Level _____
Rec'd by _____

1. Name _____ Telephone _____
(Last) (First) (Middle)
2. Address _____
(Number) (Street) (City) (Zone)
3. Date of Birth _____ Place of Birth _____ Verified _____
(Month) (Day) (Year) (City) (State)
4. School last attended _____
(Name of School) (City) (State)
5. Own father's name _____ Living? _____ Address if _____
(Last) (First) (Initial) not at home
6. Occupation _____ Business Phone _____
7. Own mother's name _____ Living? _____ Address if _____
(Last) (First) (Initial) not at home
8. Occupation _____ Business Phone _____
9. If separated, are they divorced? _____
(If living with your own parents omit items 10-15 below)
10. With whom are you living? Own mother and stepfather _____ Own father and stepmother _____
Guardian _____ Other person, Name _____ Relationship _____
11. Stepfather's name _____ Living? _____
(Last) (First) (Middle)
12. Occupation _____
13. Stepmother's name _____ Living? _____
(Last) (First) (Middle)
14. Occupation _____
15. Guardian's name _____ Relationship _____
(Last) (First) (Middle) to you _____ Legal _____
16. How many brothers _____ and sisters _____ are living at home?
17. Are there any other people living in your home who are members of your family group?
If so, what is their relationship to you? _____
18. Are you frequently under a doctor's care? _____ If you don't object, state the reason why _____
19. What is your church preference? (Optional) _____
20. In what occupations are you especially interested? (List in order of preference)
1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____
21. In what hobbies are you interested? _____
22. Are you earning money at the present time? _____ Why are you working, and what kind of work are you doing? _____
23. How long do you expect to stay in school? Through 12th _____ Through 14th _____ Beyond _____
If beyond H.S., what kind of school? _____
24. Have you ever attended school in Pasadena before? _____ If so, give name of last Pasadena school attended _____
_____ and the grade _____

possessing many valuable attributes in its own right. A questionnaire is the initial source of information about a pupil as he enters school and when he leaves it. It is most effectively used in connection with the interview.

Where the elementary pupil is entering a school and basic information is needed to identify the pupil and serve as general information background, it is necessary to have the parents complete the form used. In junior and senior high school, except under special circumstances, the information questionnaire may be completed by the pupil himself. Special circumstances may arise which demand accurate information from other sources, such as parents, guardians, or legal agencies.

If the information obtained through the questionnaire is to be transferred to a cumulative record then items should be arranged to facilitate such transfer. If some other use is to be made, then the questionnaire should be designed for the particular purpose intended and the procedure employed for utilizing or evaluating the data. One example of research methodology influencing use of a questionnaire is in cases where the data may be transferred to IBM cards. In such an event the form and responses should be prepared for economy of transfer and objectivity of scoring. In other words, before a questionnaire is developed its purpose should not only be clearly defined and understood but the mechanics involved in its use should be taken into account.

Some instructors in high schools who have 200 or more pupils each day in classes and still wish to better understand each person have had their questionnaires mimeographed on both sides of 5-by-8 cards. These stiff cards are easy to manipulate and store, and durable enough to serve a semester's or year's use. Homeroom teachers may want more-extensive-data forms.

Questionnaires have certain weaknesses. The significant ones are: *First*, they are usually overstructured or rigid, which means only specific data requested on the form are given. These data, then, may or may not describe the substance or true nature of the personality of the pupil. *Second*, many times the answers are incomplete, inaccurate, and confused. As in the use of an application form for employment, the data should be verified.

Two sample questionnaires are given: one, an information blank for entering pupils (Form 6-11), the other for guidance class (Form 6-12).

FORM 6-12

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
GUIDANCE QUESTIONNAIRE

Burbank Unified School District

Name _____ Date _____ School _____ Grade _____

I. INTERESTS

1. What things do you most enjoy doing outside of school hours? _____
What are your hobbies? _____
2. What are your plans after you complete high school? _____
3. Most people have large or small fears—what do you fear most, if anything? _____
4. What books or magazines do you like best? _____
5. What magazines do you regularly have at home? _____
6. What radio programs do you enjoy? _____
7. What television programs do you enjoy? _____
8. What type of movies do you enjoy? _____
9. Do you belong to any clubs or organizations (Scouts, Y, etc.) _____
10. What offices have you held in these clubs? _____
11. Who are your closest friends? _____
12. Do you see them often at your home? _____; at theirs? _____
at what other places? _____
13. Do you get along well with your father? _____ your mother? _____
others at home? _____ your classmates? _____
14. Are you happy? _____

II. EMPLOYMENT

15. Do you work after school? _____ Saturdays? _____
How many hours? _____
16. What kind of work? _____ Employer? _____
17. What kind of work would you like best to do? _____
18. Do you have regular work to do at home? _____ What? _____
19. Do you have an allowance? _____ How much? _____

III. HEALTH

20. Are you often absent from school, (a) due to your illness? _____
(b) illness of family? _____ (c) business? _____
(d) school business? _____ (e) other reasons _____
21. What serious illness have you had in the past? _____
22. Can you see the blackboard well? _____
23. Can you hear directions in the classroom well? _____
24. Do you often feel very tired at the end of the day? _____
25. Are members of your family often ill? _____ Which ones? _____

IV. SCHOOL

26. Do you like school? _____ Why? _____
27. What subjects do you like best in school? _____
Why? _____
28. What subjects do you like least in school? _____
Why? _____
29. What subjects are hardest for you? _____
Why? _____
30. What would make your school life happier? _____

Teacher's Name: _____ Date: _____

Health Records

Health data should be adequate enough to help answer the many problems which arise concerning placement of the pupil in proper learning and activity situations. Whether or not Johnny should be seated towards the front rows in the classroom because his vision is limited or whether Robert, who had rheumatic fever as a child, should play basketball are questions illustrative of the relationship of health and learning. Medical history of childhood diseases, accidents, disabilities, and immunizations can probably be obtained from the parents, but important aspects of the medical data must be obtained by the school physician, dentist, or nurse. As another section of the present text is being devoted to healthful living, the discussion at this time is limited to its relationship with measurement of the individual.

One note of caution should, however, be given at this point. Health records must always be held confidential. The teacher, health co-ordinator, or nurse should not release data to children or any other unauthorized sources. Teachers and counselors themselves should not draw unwarranted conclusions from health data. Such conclusions are the province of those medical authorities who are entrusted with the health program. Two sample health forms are presented (Forms 6-13 and 6-14).

Observation and Report

Simple observation of pupil behavior is the most commonly used of analytical techniques. The reporting of such observations, however, requires care and planning. The scientific observation of the individual is a much different operation from casual observation of him. Anyone can observe the individual casually. Effective observation

FORM 6-13

HEALTH DEPARTMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

PASADENA CITY SCHOOLS

Pasadena, California

HEALTH DEPARTMENT

To the Parents of Our Pupils:

We should appreciate it very much if you would answer the questions asked below in the space provided for such answers and return this blank PROMPTLY to the school.

We are required to keep health records of our pupils and will appreciate your cooperation.

School _____

Principal _____

Name of Child _____ Date of Birth _____ Grade _____

Father's Name _____ Present Health _____ Occupation _____

Mother's Name _____ Present Health _____ Occupation _____
(Outside of Home)

Number of Children in Family _____

Name and address of your family physician _____

Has your child had any of the following diseases or conditions? (Please give year)

Allergies (Specify) _____ Hay fever _____ Pleurisy _____

_____ Hearing difficulty _____ Poliomyelitis _____

Asthma _____ Heart condition _____ Pneumonia _____

Bronchitis _____ Hernia (rupture) _____ Rheumatic fever _____

Chickenpox _____ Influenza _____ Scarlet fever _____

Chorea (St. Virus Dance) _____ Kidney infection _____ Sinus infection _____

Colds frequently _____ Leg pains _____ Speech defect _____

Diphtheria _____ Measles German _____ Stuttering _____

Earache _____ Measles Red _____ Thumb sucking _____

Ear drainage (running) _____ Mumps _____ Tonsillitis _____

Epilepsy (fits) _____ Nail biting _____ Tuberculosis contact _____

Enuresis (bed wetting) _____ Whooping Cough _____

What other illness or accident has your child been treated for and when? _____

Has your child had any surgical operations? _____ If so, when and for what reason? _____

Is your child now under treatment for any physical defects? _____ If so, please specify _____

Is your child nervous? _____

Does your child sleep well? _____ What times does your child go to bed? _____

Does your child tire easily? _____

Does your child eat a good breakfast? _____ Lunch? _____ Dinner? _____

Do you have your child's teeth examined and cared for by a dentist at regular intervals? _____ If so, how often? _____

Has your child been successfully vaccinated against smallpox? _____ When? _____

Has your child been immunized against diphtheria? _____ When? _____

Has your child been immunized against whooping cough? _____ When? _____

Has your child been immunized against tetanus? _____ When? _____

Has your child had a skin test for tuberculosis? _____ When? _____ Results? _____

Has your child had an X-ray for tuberculosis? _____ When? _____ Results? _____

Date _____

Parent's Signature _____

FORM 6-14

HEALTH RECORD CARD

PASADENA CITY SCHOOLS
HEALTH RECORD

Name		PASADENA CITY SCHOOLS HEALTH RECORD											
Address		Birth Date											
School													
Teacher													
Year													
Semester													
Age													
Physical Exam Date													
Height—Inches													
Weight—Pounds													
Average weight													
Eye—Vision Right													
Vision Left													
Signs of eye strain													
Are glasses worn?													
Ear—Audiometer R.													
Audiometer L.													
Other ear conditions													
Teeth													
Date													
Immunization—Vacc.													
Diph.													
Nose													
Throat—Tonsils													
Gland—neck													
Features													
Habit													
Spine													
Feet													
Knees													
Heart													
Resp. system—Asthma													
Subject to cold													
Exposed to T.B.													
Skin Test—T.B.													
X-ray													
Endocrine system													
Nervous system													
Skin													
General Condition													
Nutrition													
Fatigue													
Notice to Parent													
Phys. Ed. Assignment													
Physical Development													
Health Rating													
Terms													
Initial													

and reporting, however, demand a well-rounded approach to the problem. To do an effective job the observer must possess considerable skill and insight. Adequate training and sufficient experience are essential if the observer is to correctly judge behavior in all of its implications. For example, Crow and Crow write:

In the past, teachers came to know pupil leaders through casual observations; today we are more concerned with developing attitudes of careful observation of the behavior of all individuals and recording facts *at the time of their occurrence or shortly thereafter*. No matter how strongly anyone believes that he will remember what has happened, he can be sure of its recall only if he makes an immediate record of it.¹⁰

Through adequate observation of pupils in classroom and other situations much can be learned about the individual's relationships with others, his general attitude, his response to success or failure, and the like considerations. Observation of individuals has often provided perceptive teachers with clues not easily available through other techniques. Quite often for instance an emotionally disturbed child will let slip some indication of his problem in an unguarded moment to someone carefully observing him.

The Anecdotal Record. Effective observation of behavior does not always need to be recorded but there are times when written records help contribute to our over-all picture of the individual. The anecdote is a written account of a student's actual behavior as observed in a specific situation. Each recorded incident is in a sense an anecdote, but interpretation of these incidents should be deferred until there has emerged enough data for a cumulative picture of the individual.

The form used for recording anecdotes should be preferably short and informal. It should include the name of the student, date, the observer's name, where the incident took place, and any comments or suggestions. See Fig. 6-1.

In recording an incident, brief sentences are advisable, sentences which emphasize objectivity. Observers need to report both strengths and weaknesses whenever possible. The actual recording of incidents should not be interpreted when put down. Interpretation is to be reserved for later appraisal of the incident. To characterize a person as industrious or lazy, for example, is neither objective nor descriptive of an incident; it is a rating of the individual. The anecdotal record attempts to describe incidents which took place in a certain setting.

The anecdotal record facilitates the understanding of the individual

¹⁰ L. D. Crow and A. Crow, *An Introduction to Guidance* (New York: American Book Company, 1951), p. 107.

Student's Name _____	Date _____
Observer's Name _____	
Where Observed _____	
Comments and Suggestions:	

Fig. 6-1. *Anecdotal-Record Form.*

by describing patterns of behavior characteristic of him. The record may serve also as a basis for pupil and parent conferences. Dated, written records of incidents which have taken place are generally more dependable than oral recollections of such incidents.

The weakness of the anecdotal record appears to lie in its subjective basis. For example, one observer's personal reaction to certain types of behavior may vary from another's. Again, one observer is impressed by certain facets of behavior while another may tend to overlook the very same considerations. Most observers tend to play up negative behavior while perhaps overlooking the more positive factors of a pupil's conduct. The quiet submissive type may be undergoing greater emotional disturbance than is the boisterous, aggressive individual. The important thing to remember in all observations is that as complete a picture of the individual as possible is necessary before any judgments are made.

The Rating-Scale. Since observations about an individual tend to vary with the particular observer involved some agreement as to what can be said about a person must be reached. The *rating-scale* provides such a means for agreement by grouping observations under a common heading or trait (e.g., cooperativeness, self-control, etc.).

Further, the rating-scale permits the observer to assess the individual on a basis of comparative values rather than rigid standardization. Thus instead of the observer's writing "cooperative" or "noncooperative" about a particular individual he can mark him as "excellent," "fair," or "poor" in this particular category. It is a well-

known fact how students vary in behavior from situation to situation. It is obvious that in a classroom where the student likes the work and is challenged by it he will be "industrious" on a rating-scale, whereas the same student, disliking or confused by his work, will be marked "lazy." The advantage of comparative ratings lies in their avoidance of "either-or" categories, or categories upon which no two observers may agree.

The problem of how to establish valid personality traits is still unresolved. It is not clear whether the situation controls, or rather determines, behavior or whether there do exist certain definable personality traits. The rating-scale marks a well-planned attempt to stabilize certain observations upon which there is agreement. It is frankly pragmatic in that while it may not be describing what is "real" in behavior it nevertheless does provide a ready means for judging the individual in different situations.

Appraisal of Observation and Reporting. The chief values of observation and reporting are centralized in: (1) analyzing the student's behavior under as many conditions as possible; (2) developing on the part of the teacher some knowledge of both the strengths and weaknesses of each pupil; (3) establishing a standard for future classroom practice; and (4) setting up criteria for purposes of evaluation.

Analysis of pupil behavior through observation involves fair and impartial judgments. This calls for an attitude of "student-mindedness" as well as "subject-mindedness" on the part of the guidance worker. The teacher, in particular, has unexcelled means for observing the pupil in such different places as the classroom, homeroom, school assembly, and during leisure-time activities.

The reports of observations when set down accurately and systematically are a means for helping set the course of classroom practices. Through these reports the teacher is provided with a clue to both the abilities and the achievements of her pupils. In addition, observation of trouble such as fatigue, improper posture, etc. may serve as direction for remedial work. Further, evaluation of pupil progress is facilitated through personal observation of proficiency in mastering certain tasks.

The dual technique of observation-reporting is strong in its personal value. It permits the teacher, for example, to get a first-hand demonstration of each pupil's behavior under all sorts of conditions. Personal opinion is strengthened through more or less directed observation and analysis. Anecdotal records and rating scales will often literally force a re-evaluation of the individual.

The observation and reporting of pupil activities in the school guidance program must, if it is to achieve its full value, be based on the total perspective of each pupil. To obtain this total perspective, it means that a sufficient sampling of behavior must be included in the record so that the addition of more observational reports will add nothing to the understanding of the individual. The following anecdotal report, while typical, must be combined with enough other reports and data so as to provide a valid basis for judgment.

Monday, January 11. Before class started I was talking with the girls about the big Girls' League Dance this Saturday—this is an affair to which the girls invite the boys and pay for the evening. It's something that the girls plan for from year to year. Laurie said that she was not going to the dance this year. The sadness in her voice indicated that she was disappointed. She said she had invited someone, but he couldn't go. Someone said to her—"but, think of the money you're saving," and Laurie immediately replied "Think of the fun I'm missing, too."

The following actual reaction by the teacher who had written sixteen anecdotal reports about Laurie over a semester indicates the limitation of this technique if employed alone or for too short a time.

In my opinion, these observations illustrate no pattern whatsoever. As I review them now, I am quite dissatisfied with them because I feel they are not representative of Laurie's behavior. I fear they are anecdotes jotted down at times when she did something rather atypical from the behavior I have grown accustomed to expect from her. Also they are episodes that were fairly easy to pin down and to describe. Generally, she has spent her time as directed, completed most of her assignments, and done acceptable work. I feel I have not chosen enough illustrations of the latter type of behavior to present a typical picture of Laurie.

This exercise has convinced me that I am quite unskilled in the art of observing and recording fairly the behavior of students. I should hate to have anyone make any assumptions from this sketchy picture presented of Laurie by my recorded observations. I never before appreciated how unfair it is to judge a person from a few anecdotes or comments by another teacher or acquaintance.

The Autobiography

The individual's own report of his life serves as another primary means for understanding his interests and problems. Many times the pupil in the classroom will reveal more of himself in an autobiography than can be gathered by outsiders through the usual techniques. Autobiographies quite often elicit all kinds of information about the student's background because they make him think of himself more

searchingly than usually is the case. It is not behavior, as commonly interpreted, which is revealed in the autobiography, but what is, perhaps, even more important, the attitudes behind this behavior.

The Structured Autobiography. Generally autobiographies are most effectively written over a period of time (usually two or three weeks) to give the individual time to consider what he is reporting. The *structured* autobiography follows an organized outline. In it, the pupil is asked to give an account of such data as family background, inter-personal relationships, interests, and the like. An outline is provided for the student to serve as a basis for his writing. Such an outline should have a high degree of consistency. Stevens¹¹ holds that any directions to a child writing a structured autobiography must, first of all, be adapted to each child's unique circumstances. A child needs to be interested in and familiar with items of instruction. In addition, he adds, children usually tend to write a more thorough autobiography if the information drawn up for them as a guide to writing is easily read, satisfying, and not too complex. Certainly, any such directions should not be difficult of comprehension or tend to frustrate the child unduly.

A structured autobiography should attempt to stimulate the pupil to self-expression. Most children are interested in themselves and given adequate guidance will write about the kind of person they believe themselves to be, their background, and their hopes and ambitions. Phrasing the questions thus is highly important. Usually the more simple and personal they are (e.g., What kind of a person am I? What is my ambition? etc.) the more success they have.

The Unstructured Autobiography. Whereas the structured biography is drawn up according to certain specifications, the *unstructured* autobiography is an account of the individual's life without regard to specific questions. While some organization is necessary, the concept behind the unstructured biography is that the pupil will reveal more of himself if he is permitted to write on his own initiative the record of his life's happenings as they occur to him.

In a sense, the unstructured autobiography is a projective device since it is assumed that the individual will divulge information not accessible through ordinary channels. In the unstructured autobiog-

¹¹ G. D. Stevens, "Studying the Child by Means of a Standardized Autobiography," in D. C. Andrew and L. N. Downing, *Readings in Guidance* (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1955), pp. 126-127.

raphy the person may give data not revealed through the structured autobiography since he may write down details of his life in the order of their importance to him and not according to any plan. The structured biography may sometimes hinder the student just because it makes him consider what he is writing.

The autobiography, whether structured or unstructured, rests upon the assumption that the individual will describe ways in which he responds to certain situations more revealingly than, say, through such techniques as the interview or questionnaire.

The autobiography is believed to be by many a useful means of finding out about attitudes as revealed through a recording of certain incidents. Again, the autobiography is by its very nature a more intimate technique since it involves the direct expression of the individual. It reveals a view of himself as a person more clearly than do most other techniques. It must be remembered, however, that the autobiography is an extremely personal affair with the weaknesses inherent in such a technique. All of us are prone to overlook limitations and build up real or imagined strengths when judging ourselves.

Following is an illustration of a structured autobiography written by a high school boy:

If you were to ask me over the phone to describe myself, this is probably the way I would answer you. I am about 5 foot 11 inches tall, weight about 178 pounds, about medium complexion with hazel eyes and brown hair cut in a flat-top style. These, which are some of my physical features, are easy to describe, but my other characteristics are very hard to describe because they vary in the opinions of different people.

My main activity at the present time is sports, but I also like to enter into other activities of interest. I like to do work in different clubs and hold various offices. The best sports in my opinion are football and swimming. I played the piano at one time, but now I regret that I quit. I have many faults, and one handicap, which is being overweight, affects my everyday life.

My parents are of the highest caliber and they have helped me along the way. They want me to have the best of education, and they plan to see that I do. I am very glad of this, but sometimes they are overbearing in trying to get me to get good grades.

My mother has thirteen brothers and sisters which are very swell, and we visit them often.

I have worked for the last three summers and one Christmas vacation and have earned about \$1800 dollars. I have saved \$500 dollars of this for college, and the rest I have used for my 49 "chevy," for school expenses, and for my girl-friend. These jobs have helped me greatly during my high school years.

I am very lucky in the health department as I have not been to a doctor,

or even sick, in the last seven years. At the present time I have perfect attendance at high school. This I believe has helped my grades some.

For my life's occupation I plan to become a lawyer. I am not sure whether I want to become a corporation lawyer or a practicing lawyer, but I can decide that after my first two years of college. I am going to attend college for four years, after which I hope to attend a university for my law training. This education will continue for two or three years. No matter what type of law I go into, I would also like to enter into politics. If after being successful, or having held the office of District Attorney, I would like to become a judge for the rest of my life.

Sociometry

One of the more interesting methods of studying social behavior patterns is sociometry. This is a means for presenting simply and graphically the entire structure of relations existing at a given time among members of a given group. The results obtained from asking the children to choose from among themselves preferred companions in some school situation that is real to them are arranged graphically and called a *sociogram*.

Sociometry assumes that the roles which individual children will play are determined by the social inter-action within the social setting, such as the classroom. Since learning takes place within the setting of pupil relationships the personal and academic growth of the individual can be affected either adversely or favorably by his position within the group. The social atmosphere in the group is created and maintained largely by pupil inter-action. Schools and teachers need to know what these inter-personal relations are like, how they function, and how they affect behavior and learning.

The sociogram does not explain the motives underlying the choices made, nor does it reveal the values that affect the children's interaction. It is simply a starting point for further investigation. It focuses attention on the dynamic aspects of inter-action rather than on individual children in isolation from one another.

The sociometric method is simple: Each person in the group is asked to write down the names of the three persons in order of preference with whom they would most like to serve on a committee, eat lunch, go on a picnic, or participate in any other activity in which the group will engage. These slips are used to make a picture (sociogram) of the inter-personal relations of the group.

The "test" should be administered informally, and the situation must be real and natural to the child. The most important items to remember in administration of the test are:

1. To include the motivating elements in the introductory remarks.
2. To word the question so that the children understand how the results are to be used.
3. To allow enough time.
4. To emphasize *any* boy or girl so as to approve in advance any direction the choice may take.
5. To present the test situation with interest and some enthusiasm.
6. To say how soon the arrangements based on the test can be made.
7. To keep the whole procedure as causal as possible.

After the test has been given, and the sociogram made, the immediate thing to do is to carry out the agreement made with the child-

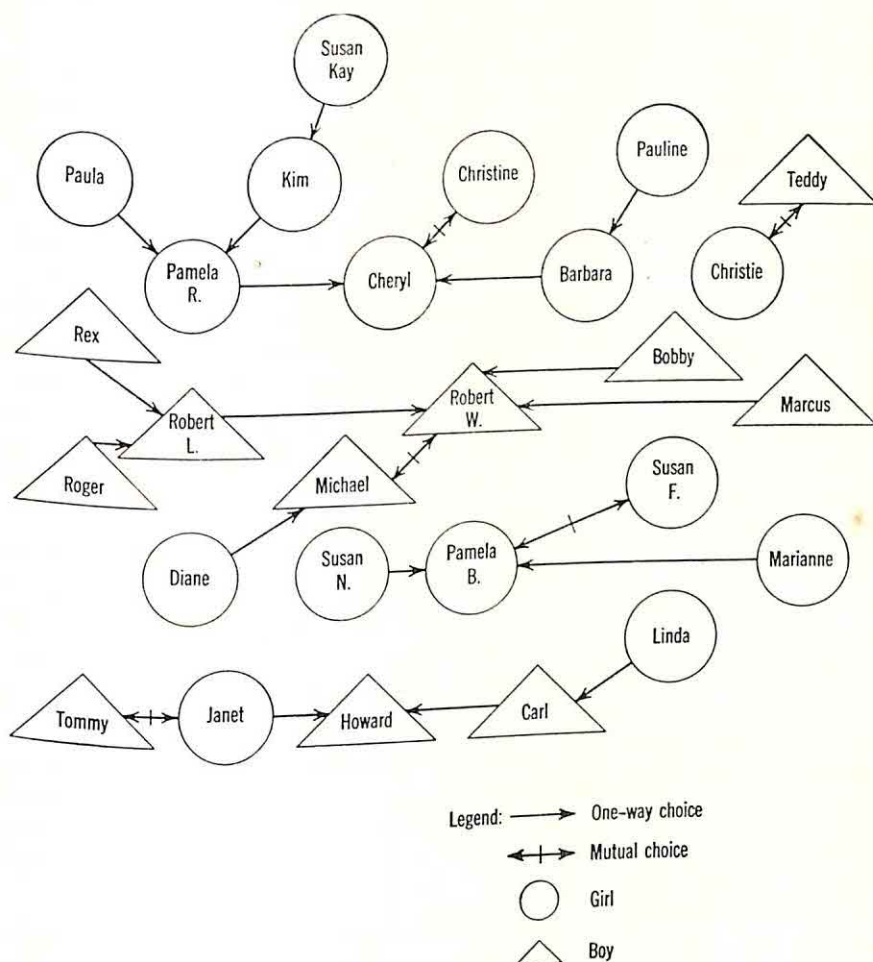


Fig. 6-2. Sociogram.

ren when they were asked to indicate their choices. The object is to provide for each child the best possible arrangement from his point of view, with some compromise being necessary because of the number in the group.

Sociograms have been put to many uses, some of which include assisting individual children, re-shaping general school or classroom practices, grouping for work, and grouping for clubs.

A single sociogram obviously is not sufficient for generalizing about a group. It should be considered in relation to the time it was taken and should benefit the persons involved. Follow-up sociograms will provide many correctives for interpretation and will be most useful for checking on growth after some action has been taken on the first results.

The sociogram labeled Fig. 6-2 was made as an outcome of choices given by a group of first-grade children. They were asked to choose the one person in the room they would like best to walk with on a trip to the public library (four blocks from school).

Slips of paper were passed out to the group, and each child was asked to write his name at the top of the paper. The teacher then explained that she would go to each child and they would whisper to her the name of the person with whom they wished to walk. She wrote that name on each child's slip of paper. The children understood that everyone would not have their wish fulfilled, and this was very well accepted. Because of the immaturity of the children, they were asked to make only one choice.

There were eleven cases of rejection, with five incidents of mutual recognition.

CHOICES BY PERCENTAGE

Mutual choices	18.5%
One-way choices	81.5%
	100.0%
4 girls chose boys	25.0%
12 girls chose girls	75.0%
	100.0%
2 boys chose girls	18.2%
9 boys chose boys	81.8%
	100.0%

In making this sociogram, it was attempted to follow the principles as set forth in Jennings's sociometric techniques:

- A. The situation should be real . . . choices are not hypothetical.
- B. The results are used in making arrangements for working or living.

C. There is an immediacy to the choosing; it is for right now.

D. The invitation to choose is presented concretely so that the students know the reasons for choosing, and the use to which they will be put.¹²

Tests and other devices designed to measure social relationships are considered by many to be limited, but with potentialities. As is true with other techniques, the use of sociograms alone may cause more harm than good. Good developmental records must be available as a basis for interpretation and utilization of sociometric materials.

Role-Playing

Role-playing (psychodrama) is a means for "acting out" certain problems. In helping a student to secure after-school employment, for example, the teacher takes over the role of the potential employer and the student goes through the actual motions associated with applying for the job. In this way questions are put to the pupil which resemble those he later will be asked by his future employer. This kind of training helps provide the student with those experiences necessary to feelings of confidence. The mechanics of job application become familiar to him and when he leaves school he is not "lost" when seeking employment.

Teacher-selection committees have of late been using role-playing to appraise candidates applying for positions. Prospective teachers are placed on panels (usually consisting of four or five teacher candidates) and after choosing a chairman they are asked to discuss actual school problems, e.g., discipline in the classroom, parent-teacher relationships, etc. The selection committee then grades the candidates according to their ability to grasp the meaning of the problems presented to them and their presentations of possible solutions. Seeing candidates acting out school problems is a superior means for judging them.

Role-playing is, as the name implies, a means for self-expression. It gives the individual more opportunity to be seen in "action" than do the pencil-and-paper tests. It serves also as a preparatory means by which the individual gains confidence in himself through acquaintance with his future problems. Familiarity does much to dispel fear. Through expressing himself before he goes out to meet novel situations a person has already built up confidence with information helpful to him by the time he finds himself actually in those situations.

¹² H. Jennings, *Sociometry in Group Relations* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1948), pp. 12-31.

Role-playing is a valuable teaching device because it can help sponsor desirable attitudes. This becomes possible because children do identify themselves with their heroes. By emulating, for example, Washington, Jefferson, and the like great American patriots the child takes on the attitudes necessary for the desirable citizen.

Role-playing as a technique of guidance is based upon the concept that society itself forces the individual into playing several roles. The pupil is also the child of parents, the brother or sister of siblings, the friend of classmates, etc. Thus role-playing can be a projective technique in which the student normally restrained by custom and habit reveals the other "sides" of his personality.

Role-playing can give the individual added confidence since it indicates to him how his problem can be brought out into the open. Treatment of war veterans has done much to disclose feelings and attitudes which the former soldier had believed repressed for good. In fact psychiatry itself works on the principle of self-help through clarification of problems, no matter how deeply submerged.

Daily Schedules, Diaries, and Life-Space Surveys

A description of daily activities in his usual physical environment is helpful in providing a background for understanding an individual's behavior.

Ideally a time-and-motion study of each child should be made available to the school. However, such studies are out of the question at the present time because of lack of both job analysts and funds to provide for them. Parents and pupils can, however, be encouraged and trained well enough to overcome many of these handicaps and help make surveys. With care and direction a pupil can make a record of his daily activities.

Daily Schedule. This procedure is simply that of giving each pupil a time schedule starting at a given hour with five-, ten-, or fifteen-minute intervals, and requesting him to write down the activities in which he engages. For example, Mary might write:

	Number of Minutes
6:00 Sleeping	
7:00 Get up, wash, dress	30
7:30 Breakfast of fruit, cereal	15
7:45 Collected books, etc., for school, talked	10
7:55 Walked to school	20

If Mary completes an accurate schedule of her activities for each complete day of the week, the teacher or counselor—and Mary—will have a better framework for understanding. This procedure is especially helpful for investigating problems of outside activities, study habits, etc.

Two incidental problems are involved in the use of this particular technique: (1) the inability or unwillingness of the pupil to complete such detailed work and (2) the difficulty of some pupils to report with accuracy concerning their activities. These obstacles may be overcome with the aid of parents who help complete a schedule of the child's activities.

Data from such records can provide clues to the interests, health-habits, attitudes, and family patterns which characterize the individual. Daily schedules can serve also to stimulate counseling sessions as well as parent-teacher conferences. Discussions in class and other group situations can be initiated through use of daily schedules. In this respect, care must be taken to avoid embarrassment arising from any information of a personal nature disclosed through the schedule.

Teachers and counselors have found the daily schedule a challenging technique. It is especially useful with other techniques which seek personal data about the individual.

Diaries. This record of one's activities has become famous in both history and literature. We have come to know, as if personally, many of the great figures of the past because they left behind a diary. Who is not familiar with Samuel Pepys' delightful account of his day-to-day movements? Pupils should be encouraged to keep diaries and to record in them accounts of their activities and thoughts of the day. Not all pupils will show these intimate portrayals to the counselor, but there are those who need help and whose diaries can reveal data about themselves, data which, perhaps, can not be revealed through the usual channels.

Life-Space Surveys.¹³ These surveys are designed to give the individual a clearer perspective of the physical world in which he lives. The life-space survey is, in effect, a map of the particular area which surrounds the person. Its purpose is to furnish a better understanding of the details of the natural environment which so greatly affects one's behavior.

The procedure is simple enough. A competent observer may follow a particular student as he goes home from school, charting the route

¹³ See, for example, the Maryland Child Study Program.

as he crosses the streets, passes stores and houses, and meets the people whom he knows. Albert's house plan, if his parents cooperate, may be drawn, giving such details as number of rooms, arrangements of furniture, etc. Where he plays and the distance from home to this area as well as other meeting-places should all be indicated. In effect all of the individual's usual physical world should be charted and described.

From these data, if at all accurate, inferences can be made as to possible environmental influences. Learning activities may then be adapted to this world of experiences. Reading, writing, and arithmetic, for example, may be oriented in terms of the student's typical situations.

Caution must be exercised in using this technique with respect to placing too much confidence in one item or area of information. No individual can or should be accepted or condemned merely on the basis of his home or living area.

Personality Inventories

Precise measurement of personality, as has been indicated, is the most difficult of all problems because there exists so much disagreement as to an exact definition of the nature of personality. Nevertheless certain tests have been constructed which seek to reveal the "substance" of personality. Other tests inventory personal problems or representative patterns of behavior.

The Projective Tests. Projective tests (e.g., the Rorschach Ink Blot Test and the Thematic Apperception Test, TAT) are designed so that the individual "projects" his attitudes and feelings in response to indefinite objects or hypothetical situations. The Rorschach, for example, is composed of a series of ink blots which can be variously interpreted. This means that the person taking the test is presented with a problem which does not offer stereotyped answers or clues to answers, so the respondent projects his "true" personality feelings when interpreting the blots. Highly trained investigators analyze the individual's responses to these ink blots believing that thereby they have penetrated the protective layer concealing personality. Prejudice, for instance, against certain persons or objects can be revealed by a pattern of responses. Even clinicians, however, do not make final judgments solely on the basis of this test.

Guidance people usually have neither the time nor the training to

use these projective tests. Because of these obstacles the questionnaire or inventory type of tests have been widely used in order to obtain quantitative scores.

The Mooney Problem Check Lists are adapted for use at junior high school, senior high school, college, and adult levels. The questions in the check lists are arranged so that the scores indicate or identify pupil problem areas in health and physical development, home and family, morals and religion, sex, economic security, school or occupation, and social and recreational activities. Counselors and group guidance leaders have found the check lists very helpful and comparatively free of the danger of fixing psychological labels upon individuals, which has so often created problems in the use of personality devices.

The SRA Youth Inventory is designed to help children and youth to identify problem areas of "my school," "looking ahead," "about myself," "getting along with others," "my home and family," "boy meets girls," "health," and "life in general." There is also an inventory for younger children, grades four through eight.

Some Other Inventories of Adjustment. The Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey identifies ten factors. The California Tests of Personality indicate personal- and social-adjustment scores. The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, which has been subjected to more research than the other paper-and-pencil inventories, is employed to identify individuals with personality problems. The scores yield certain diagnostic results which are useful to the well-trained psychologist. Under no circumstances should an untrained person attempt to interpret the results of this inventory.

More will be given in the next chapter on the interpretation of the inventory scores.

Summary

The modern guidance worker has a new awareness both of the complexity of human behavior and of the problems involved in appraising the individual with a minimum of bias. One has only to compare, for instance, the present techniques of appraisal with the old ones to see how much more depth has been added to our judgments. Techniques for individual appraisal are now considered as tools for our understanding of personality development. The in-

dividual is now measured in terms of his total development and behavior. Measurement is subordinate to the objective of guidance, namely, facilitating pupil progress. The next chapter will continue with an examination of the techniques for understanding the individual. The belief in the infallibility of tests has long since gone. Nevertheless techniques represent our chief weapons for carrying out the purposes of guidance. Human behavior is most effectively measured by the scientific approach. *The important thing to remember is that individuals must be approached with relation to the whole person.* Interpreted thus, understanding and appreciation of individual appraisal makes the effective guidance program possible.

Suggested Problems

1. What are some things that must be taken into consideration in order to predict whether or not a student will be successful in college?
2. Observe a group of children in some activity and write an objective observation of the behavior of at least one child.
3. What information about a student ought the school to have?
4. Why is the interview not particularly useful with young children? What other means might be used to accomplish the same purpose.
5. How does an interview differ from an ordinary conversation? How does counseling differ from interviewing?
6. Write a brief autobiography. Exchange your paper with that of a classmate and list the types of facts included in the paper.
7. What do you think about the teacher's self-evaluation regarding observation of Laurie's behavior.

Suggested Readings

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Chapter 7

Techniques for Understanding the Individual (Continued)

The last chapter presented the over-view and rationale as well as a number of accepted practices for the appraisal of individual growth and development. Special emphasis was given the techniques for understanding and evaluating the maturation process in terms of personal-social adjustment.

This chapter will consider the use of standardized objective procedures in addition to some of the more widely recognized methods for assessing ability, aptitude, achievement, and interest. The measurement of these aspects of behavior plus the study of personal-social values constitute the guidance testing program.

The testing program, as previously indicated, is only part of the total effort to understand the individual. In view of this fact, this chapter also includes suggestions for recording, interpreting, and reporting the data which emerge from an attempt to appraise the individual.

Some General Aspects of Testing

There is little doubt now that our concept of the person has been profoundly modified by the new disclosures concerning human behavior. This new and more complete picture of the person is due to

the research which has been carried on by those disciplines investigating behavior, notably experimental psychology.

Testing is the *sine qua non* of experimental psychology; in fact, has made it the respected discipline it now is. In turn from experimental psychology has come "... a legacy of respect for careful experimental method and precision of technique, a number of experimental designs, and statistical techniques that could be carried over into more general psychological and educational measurement problems."¹

Experimental psychology—including all the different "schools" of behaviorism which have been initiated since the beginning of the movement in America—works on *the principle of economy*. That is to say, it attempts to keep biases at a minimum, contenting itself with describing observed phenomena. As a result of such work guidance techniques have a much firmer basis upon which to predict their results.

The thesis of experimental psychology and hence of much of testing is that behavior is at once the distinctive mark and the primary source of measurement of the processes of life. Thus development is now generally considered in terms of the organism's response to its environment. Testing in general, as well as the different techniques of which it consists, are geared to this view of the developmental process. They represent an effort to apply in *definite* and *uniform terms* the principles and purposes of guidance.

Tests in guidance are standardized instruments through which facets of behavior are measured scientifically. To insure the same presentation and to reduce subjectivity in scoring each test has standardized instructions for administration and scoring. Testing is carried on in as free an environment as possible. Every one who takes the test is urged to do his best under conditions designed to put him at ease. Under such conditions measurement becomes truly fair and impartial.

Tests fall into two general categories: (1) those tests which attempt to measure objective aspects of behavior, i.e., intelligence quotient, finger dexterity, mechanical aptitude, etc. and (2) those which seek to isolate and define such subtle qualities as creativeness, motivation, judgment, etc. These subtler qualities of behavior are far more difficult to test than are the more overt aspects. Performance is observable; the causes for this performance, i.e., motivation, must be inferred.

Nevertheless, tests based upon inferences are being used increasingly. Many times success in a career, for example, will depend more on such considerations as interest, integrity, and stability than it will

¹ R. L. Thorndike and E. Hagen, *Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1955), pp. 3-4.

upon job efficiency or prior school achievement. In teaching, for instance, a child's skill can be directly measured, but who can adequately measure the teacher's influence upon that child.

The important thing to remember is that test data are best considered on a continuum. Thus, for example, the difference between test scores and anecdotal reports is a matter of degree rather than kind. All data are used as a means for a clearer understanding of the individual and his problems.

The Testing Program in the School

To successfully conduct an extensive program of standardized testing in the school requires a concerted effort by the entire staff. Furthermore, most authorities are agreed that a program of this nature should be supervised by one or more persons on the school staff professionally equipped to do so. This provision is made to insure uniformity and accuracy in administration and scoring.

It is, however, the responsibility of all concerned to formulate the policies and goals of the testing program to be professionally administered. Thorndike and Hagen write in their excellent volume on testing that:

The starting place [of the school testing program] is the school and its curriculum, the staff and their needs. Of course, it cannot be expected that each single teacher will have seen in advance how test data are to be used in forwarding his activities in his class. Learning to use test information represents one aspect of in-service growth. But a testing program unrelated to local needs, local resources, and local levels of sophistication is unlikely to function effectively. Planning that does not center around the ways the staff are to be brought into using the testing information is likely to be sterile. For tests are to be given to be used, not to be filed. More important than planning *what* tests are to be *given* is planning *how* the tests are to be *used*.²

Thus each professional school person should participate in planning the program of evaluation. Any individual problems which arise may then be discussed and a procedure set to meet them by the other responsible parties. No one in the school, however, is in a better position to help assess the needs and progress of the pupil than the classroom teacher.

Cooperation on the part of the entire staff, in addition, makes possible the fullest use of standardized tests. Through such cooperation the objectives of guidance with regard to individual development

² *Ibid.*, p. 422.

are more clearly illuminated. Testing helps reveal the specific abilities of each student and thereby allows the school to make plans to improve them. Furthermore, the standardized test makes possible individual appraisal in a fair and impartial manner. The following preliminary considerations have been submitted for a program of school testing.

1. The tests employed in the program should be selected and administered for specific purposes which are stated in advance.
2. The program should be undertaken cooperatively by the school faculty.
3. A comprehensive list of the procedures involved in carrying out the program must be included in the overall plan.
4. The program should be practical and definite.
5. The program should be both continuous and long-range in scope.³

Selection of Tests. Guidance requires the widest range of data with respect to pupil abilities. It is obvious that those kinds of tests must be selected which most fully supply these data. A test in the school provides a technique whereby the teacher, among others, is able to gain some insight into defined aspects of behavior. It should be made clear at the outset that only one aspect of behavior is being appraised by a given test and that this aspect must be considered in relation to the whole personality. The selection of standardized tests, further, must be considered in a number of definite terms. To quote one test publisher:

When it comes to tests, what questions should be asked? *Content.* Do test items related to the curriculum remain consistent with educational objectives, and are they appropriate for pupils? *Comparability of forms.* Do interchangeable forms exist at each level, with a single set of accessories, instructions and norms? *Norms.* Are the norms based on nationwide standardization to the population selected and controlled in terms of educational characteristics, age, grade, intelligence, and geographic location? *Integration.* Can tests be fitted with companion instruments into comprehensive evaluation programs? *Interpretation.* Can test results be easily expressed in meaningful, useful form, with pupil profiles, diagnostic analyses, etc.? *Administration.* Do tests have clear illustrations and type with simple, complete instructions for administration and scoring?⁴

Unity of Testing. A pupil's aptitudes, we know now, are intimately bound to all aspects of his personality. By virtue of its particular function a test is an analysis of a certain "personality event" to use a notable expression. It would be idle to speak of testing aptitude with-

³ A. E. Traxler and others, *Introduction to Testing and the Use of Test Results in Public Schools* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953), p. 14.

⁴ *A Report for the California Test Bureau.* (Hollywood, California: California Test Bureau, 1957).

out also giving thought to the general levels of intelligence and achievement, and the like personal considerations. The hope of the guidance function—of which testing is but one phase—is centered in the adjusted and self-confident individual who is concerned with improving himself as a human being.

According to Goodenough, a basic consideration in classifying the individual has been overlooked, namely, Is the score obtained from the test to be looked upon as a sign, a sample, or a measurement of the characteristic named?⁵

Testing, then, is a convenient and effective means at present for theoretically isolating facets of behavior. For purposes of unity, tests have to be constructed or chosen for use which measure these facets in terms of the larger goal, namely, the optimum development of the individual. Tests, therefore, should (1) test what they claim to test and (2) be able to produce results which may be fitted into the instructional program. Furthermore if tests are to produce practical results there must be a uniform and accurate method of administration and of scoring.

This uniformity and accuracy of administration and of scoring depend upon four characteristics which thus far are indispensable to any measuring instrument: (1) *validity*, (2) *reliability*, (3) *objectivity*, and (4) *usability*. It is, however, necessary to add that these characteristics are not independent of one another. Instead they complement each other in a well-organized test. Together they make possible accuracy in measurement and their inclusion is recommended in any consideration of tests.

Validity

The validity of a given test is found in *the degree to which the test measures that which it is presumed to measure*. Since it already has been indicated that only a sample or facet of behavior is measured, the primary importance of validity should need no defense. In fact, the "measure" of a test itself is founded upon the degree of validity it may possess.

⁵ F. L. Goodenough, *Mental Testing* (New York: Rinehart and Company, 1949), p. 93.

Note: Anastasi is also concerned with the necessity of more precisely defining test results. She holds that psychological tests are like those in the physical sciences since they are fundamentally objective and standardized measures of a sample of behavior, and not of the behavior itself. A. Anastasi, *Psychological Testing* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1954), p. 22.

A test designed for one particular measurement should not, therefore, produce results other than those for which it was originally designed. Thus, a test for mechanical aptitude should not measure finger dexterity, although quite often mechanical aptitude and finger dexterity have been found to accompany one another. However, it is quite possible for a person to be extremely agile with his fingers and yet possess little mechanical ability (e.g., the baseball player or artist who is lost when his automobile breaks down). As a further example, a certain history test may have so many involved questions or items that it tends to measure reading comprehension rather than the materials taught during the course, though such comprehension is related to mastery of the materials.

Determination of Validity. Specifically, a teacher may determine the "face" or curricular validity of standardized tests by comparing the content of the test with his own goals or those of the school at large. Another method of establishing validity—although one which is undoubtedly more specialized—is that of statistical comparison. This procedure involves the computation of correlations between given test scores and other defined criteria of the particular facet of behavior which has been measured.

Statistical validity also is established through the comparison of scores of a new test with those of an older test, one which has been used on many people. The statistical tests for validity are, perhaps, more wisely left to the specialist chosen for that purpose. The counselor can, and should, however, try to do as much as possible towards understanding and establishing validity. Quantitative calculations are not too difficult to master and courses on educational statistics are offered at virtually all colleges and universities. Standardized tests have already been validated in varying degrees. The degree of validation in this way becomes a decisive factor in the selection of any classroom test. The counselor will not find it difficult to examine the proposed tests and single out those which will most thoroughly suit his own purposes.

Reliability

Consistency is the nearest term one can use in describing reliability in a measuring instrument. A reliable test will show approximately the same results upon repeated administration of the same test, or it will show approximately the same results as closely comparable forms

of the test. A reliable test will demonstrate, for example, that the answers from arithmetical problems are identical, regardless of the number of times the test is given. Whereas validity refers to measuring that specific phase of behavior singled out for testing, reliability is a term used most commonly with the characteristic of accuracy. In short, reliability is the extent of agreement which emerges from repeated administration of a specific test.

Determining Reliability. Test makers may determine reliability by the "test-retest" method. This means that the same test has been given twice to the same group and the results in both instances compared. Another method by which to check reliability is to use comparable forms of the same test and again compare the results. Still a third method of checking is known as the odd-even or split-halves method. By comparing the odd-numbered items with the even-numbered ones, a measure of reliability may be obtained.

Objectivity

Establishing the objectivity of a test is professedly a technical matter. It implies a minimum of personal bias in the scoring and interpretation of the results of tests. Test items of a standardized test must be carefully observed and evaluated despite any claims of objectivity for the test. Objective tests are the product of agreed-upon observations, which it may be assumed have been critically examined for errors. Differences in observation, however, will sometimes undermine the objectivity of a test.⁶ Objectivity, nevertheless, has become one of the hallmarks of the standardized testing program.

Usability

Under the above heading comes such considerations as simplicity of administration, ease of scoring, kind of printing, and adequacy of

⁶ Guilford describes the attempts at objective measurement by writing that "the 'errors of observation' that are avoided and condemned by the other sciences become meat for psychology. We not only wish to know the causes of errors of measurement but we also wish to know the extent to which one individual observer differs from another, how the various senses compare as instruments of precision, and how within the same sense the various attributes can be discriminated." J. P. Guilford, *Psychometric Methods* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936), p. 24.

norms. The usability of a test, of course, will vary with the groups and their particular environment.

It is the counselor who is most closely related to the conduct of the test as well as to its results. If the counselor is able to provide the proper kind of impetus to the testing program, many later problems will be avoided. It is confusing to accept claims that a test is both valid and reliable without recognizing that these claims must depend upon the particular *use* which is made of the test itself. In this connection Goodenough emphasizes the fact that:

No test can be regarded as valid unless it becomes a cooperative enterprise in which the role of the examiner is that of presenting to the subject a standard series of tasks in a manner that will arouse his interest and challenge him to put forth his best efforts Merely going through the form of a test counts for little if the subject's cooperation is poor or if the examiner is careless in his procedures or inaccurate in his scoring.⁷

There is nothing incompatible between saying that a test is valid and reliable and that it is not practical for use in a special situation. Once a test is selected by virtue of its other characteristics, then it is the teacher's or counselor's responsibility to so administer the test that it does not conflict with his purposes. What should be determined initially is whether the teacher or the specialist will administer the test and under what conditions.

It is suggested here that each teacher or counselor seek some training in test procedures, if he has not already done so. Thus prepared, a teacher can in some instances administer the tests himself or be better able to help those who do so. In addition, through knowledge of the mechanics and purposes of testing he gains a deeper insight into the learning process and becomes capable of discussing this process more intelligently. Individual tests should be administered only by a psychologist.

Scoring

The scoring of a standardized test requires specialized training. Because of this fact the task of scoring has usually gone to the school counselor or someone specifically designated for the purpose. It is, however, possible for a teacher to score some tests herself with a little preparation. Many teachers have, in fact, scored achievement tests and done well at it. Scoring by a professional agency, however, saves time and money and has proved very effective. In view of today's

⁷ F. L. Goodenough, *op. cit.*, p. 297.

attempts at mass education, a realistic appraisal of the problem would certainly tend to favor scoring by an outside agency. Such agencies are equipped and ready to do the job and their work is uniformly good. The usually overworked teacher thus is saved much valuable time and has a ready basis for her own interpretation.

With respect to actual testing conditions in the classroom, plans should be laid that can be followed with as little difficulty as possible. Such plans should be enforced without exception. Each student must be made to feel at ease and secure and that the testing is part of the instructional program, not merely an unpleasant hurdle to be gotten over with as quickly as possible. Too many of the older aspects of testing still persist in the student's appreciation of tests. The student should be helped to feel that the test is part of the educational program and not some obstacle put in his way to harass him. If the purposes of the test have not been explained to the pupil and his full cooperation obtained, thus insuring good motivation, the test scores have little value.

Adequate Testing Conditions. To achieve optimum results a test should be given under the most adequate physical conditions possible. The lighting should favor the student's reading and writing of the test and his seating make him comfortable. Much of the disorder associated with testing, it has been found, arises from inadequate preparation and lack of firm direction during the testing itself. To expedite the actual testing, practice sessions should be given by the teacher to accustom the pupil to his responsibility. The next section will consider the various areas of testing.

Intelligence or Mental Ability

Educators today place emphasis not upon intelligence alone but rather upon what is interpreted as *intelligent behavior*. That is to say, a student may be able to handle the abstract symbols identified with academic subjects with great facility but have very little skill in social relationships, a failing perhaps due to emotional problems. Getting along with people is indeed a manifestation of intelligent behavior. Again, some individuals may be mechanically apt, demonstrating rare intelligence in handling the artifacts of our technological culture. These same people, however, might not be able to assimilate the rudiments of syntax, but they can and do run the complex machines of our civilization. In all of this argument over intelligence, it is well

to remember that there are different expressions of intelligence and that intelligence must be measured in its rightful context. The individual who has had a high academic standing while in school may be the one who fails to adjust to the world. Conversely the "poor" student may go on to great heights in the outside world because he can act intelligently in other ways not yet measurable by our present instruments. One writer well sums up the case for I.Q. testing by writing that the I.Q. continues to be a useful concept provided one remembers that it is influenced to some extent by schooling and by other environmental factors and the I.Q.'s obtained from different tests may not be directly comparable.⁸

For purposes of this text, tests designed to measure intelligence or mental ability will be considered as scholastic- or academic-aptitude tests. It must be remembered, however, that there are also specific fields such as mechanical, clerical, and art aptitudes which are measured by tests. By aptitudes is here meant a pattern of traits or abilities which indicate a potentiality.

Whatever the test, however, it must be kept in mind that the individual reacts in a total way; hence an intelligence test may also involve achievement and vice versa. Again, a well-adjusted child usually is in better position to assimilate scholastic work and so may score higher when tested. As applied to vocational guidance, abilities, aptitudes, and achievements are combined to yield a picture of strong and weak points for a possible occupational level.

Intelligence or Academic-Aptitude Tests. In the school, as presently interpreted, academic-aptitude tests are designed to measure pupil ability to succeed in school work. Actually Alfred Binet, who pioneered in the area of intelligence testing, was primarily interested in a measuring instrument through which he could determine what children could be taught in the schools of Paris. His aim was centered in eliminating those students who could not handle "abstract symbols." Thus the concept "scholastic aptitude" and "higher mental processes" became well-known phrases in our educational terminologies. Academic-aptitude tests are expected to reveal the intelligent quotient (I.Q.) of the pupil or his assumed capacity to master "school" subjects; thus they are also described as intelligence tests. These tests are now given in the elementary school by personnel trained for this work. The interpretations of their results have proved of definite value for the classroom teacher in planning the course of learning for the pupil.

⁸ A. E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 53.

Mental ages, however, are believed to level off during adolescence to the point that at the adult level there is little or no significant increase of mental age with chronological age.

Care must be exercised, however, in both the use and interpretation of the intelligence test. Such tests, it is conceded, have been culturally determined; i.e., they are based upon items indigenous to a particular social group or groups. Children, for example, from homes which have ready access to full means of communication (e.g. books, recordings, journals, etc.) invariably will score higher on I.Q. tests than those who lack these cultural advantages.

Another criticism of I.Q. tests has been made with respect to the "constancy" of the I.Q. Some writers argue that intelligence remains the same regardless of what tests indicate. Such a view is reminiscent of older beliefs on the "innateness" of intelligence. What is really telling, however, is the fact that intelligence may only be ascertained through some form of behavior, behavior which can be and is being measured.

Examples of Academic-Aptitude Tests

Army General Classification Test. First Civilian Edition. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1945. Grades 9-16, and adults. Testing time of 40-50 minutes. Designed during World War II to expedite the classification of service personnel in terms of their ability to learn. Norms are available for 125 occupations. Users should not be misled into believing that this test is identical with the final army version, as this civilian form is an adaptation of the first standardization.

California Test of Mental Maturity. Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1936-1951. Forms for Pre-primary, (kindergarten to 1); Primary (grades 1-3); Elementary (grades 4-8); Intermediate (grades 7-10, adults); Advanced (grades 9-16, adults). Testing time: 90-110 minutes. (There are short forms which may be administered in 40-60 minutes.) The test gives eight scores: (1) memory, (2) spatial relationship, (3) logical reasoning, (4) numerical reasoning, (5) vocabulary, (6) total language factors, (7) total non-language factors, and (8) total mental factors. Only the last three scores have enough reliability to be used. More validation studies are needed.

Cooperative School and College Ability Tests (SCAT). Princeton, New Jersey: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, 1955-1956. Testing time: 70 minutes. Forms for elementary (grades 4 and up); secondary; and college. Each test consists of four parts, two verbal and two quantitative. The publishers state that these are

not intelligence tests but tests which measure skills that materially affect a student's success at succeeding levels of education. Reliability and validity data are available in an extensive manual. The test score is interpreted not as a precise score, but within a band of confidence. It is recommended that this test be used with the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress (STEP).

Davis-Eells Test of General Intelligence or Problem Solving Ability (Davis-Eells Games). Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1952. Two levels, primary for grades 1 and 2 and elementary for grades 3-6. Testing time: 60-120 minutes, depending upon the grades. This test was designed to be "culture-free." Testing is conducted through a series of realistic pictures involving problems which are presumed not to favor one cultural background over another. To further enhance their design, directions are given orally so as to eliminate any reading differences which may exist. A total score and an index of problem-solving are given, which are roughly comparable to an I.Q. score. At present validity and reliability data are limited.

Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests, 6th Edition. Princeton, New Jersey: The Personnel Press, 1952. Grades: kindergarten, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7-8, and 9-12. Testing time: 30-45 minutes. This is a well-known and widely used test series. They are constructed to yield an over-all mental age and an I.Q. The ten subtests are composed chiefly of linguistic and numerical items. However, the subtests are not to be used for diagnosis. Reliability and validity coefficients are satisfactory.

Ohio State University Psychological Test, Form 21. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1919-1955. Grades 9-16, and adults. Testing time: not limited. Composed of 150 items of same-opposites, analogies, and paragraph comprehension, the test is designed to measure the student's ability to think. This power test is generally recognized as a good scholastic-aptitude test at the college level. Reliability is high.

Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests. Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1939-1954. Forms: Alpha (grades 1.5-4); Beta (grades 4-9); Gamma (grades 9-16). Testing time: 20-35 minutes. These new forms are a continuation of one of the most widely used tests designed to predict scholastic aptitude. They are easily administered and scored. An over-all I.Q. is obtained from this highly verbal test. Reliability is adequate.

Revised Standard-Binet Scale. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Forms L and M. This very famous individual test of intelligence should be administered and scored only by a trained person. It

may be used to determine mental-ability scores for children two years of age to adults. The present scale, a revision of the first, issued by Lewis Terman in 1916, covers a wider range, is more precisely standardized, contains a wider range of samplings of ability, and is less verbal than the older version. Buros reports 500 studies concerning this test.

SRA Primary Mental Abilities. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1946-1953. Three levels: ages 5-7, ages 7-11, and ages 11-17. Testing time: 40-60 minutes. These tests are an abbreviated form of the Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities—which may still be purchased. An outgrowth of Thurstone's famous studies in factor analysis, the present tests at the 5-7 level measure motor, perceptual speed, quantitative, verbal meaning, and space; at the 7-11 level, perception, number, reasoning, verbal meaning, and space; at the 11-17 level, number, reasoning, verbal meaning, space, and word fluency. Scores are yielded from each subtest. Validity is, however, questioned.

Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS). New York: The Psychological Corporation. This is a revised and restandardized Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale, originally issued in 1939. Designed for use for those 16 and over. Like its forerunner, it fills a need as a device for measuring adult intelligence. Requires specialized training to administer and score, especially when used as a clinical tool. Contains eleven subtests of which six are verbal (one vocabulary) and five non-verbal performance tests. I.Q. scores are derived from a total of the verbal, the non-verbal, and the total of both.

Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC). New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1949. Ages 5-15. Composed of twelve subtests, six verbal and six performance. One verbal test and one performance test optional. Standardized on data covering 2,200 white American children. Manual reports validity and reliability studies. Reviewers indicate, however, that more studies are needed. Requires specialized training to administer and score this individual test.

Aptitude Testing in Multiple Areas

The scope of academic aptitude testing has been broadened in recent years to include some other important considerations. This development has resulted from increased specialization in both education and industry as well as in many other areas.

Multi-factor Tests. New tests have thus been designed to uncover more than one aptitude. These are multi-factor tests. Two of the

most widely used are the General Aptitude Test Battery and the Differential Aptitude Test.

General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB). Washington, D.C.: Employment Service, Bureau of Employment Security, U.S. Department of Labor, 1952. A unified battery of aptitude tests for use primarily with job applicants who have had little or no experience. Available for use in non-profit institutions in counseling, as well as by employers. Each state employment service may provide free testing services under its own direction. Scores from the separate subtests are combined to designate intelligence (G), verbal aptitude (V), numerical aptitude (N), spatial aptitude (S), form perception (P), clerical perception (Q), aiming (A), motor speed (T), finger dexterity (F), and manual dexterity (M). Validation was made by testing groups of persons already working in an occupation.

Differential Aptitude Test Battery (DAT). New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1947. Grades 8-12. Testing time: 300-330 minutes. The test is composed of eight subtests measuring verbal reasoning, numerical ability, abstract reasoning, space relations, mechanical reasoning, clerical speed and accuracy, and spelling and sentences. The manual is extensive and helpful, giving such information as: median correlation between tests of the DAT and success in different secondary school courses, and percentile equivalents of average scores on the DAT for men in various educational and occupational groups.

Special Aptitude Tests. For the present, however, and in the absence of such extensive and detailed test knowledge there are in use a number of aptitude tests for specialized fields. As commonly interpreted such specialized tests seek to uncover on the part of the individual some degree of ability to master a specific skill (e.g., speak French, play the piano, etc.). Aptitudes of this kind are undoubtedly related to intelligence, but not too curiously perhaps, one may have, for example, an aptitude for mechanical work but still fail to grasp the theoretical aspects of internal combustion. There is thus an obvious need for special tests which reveal abilities not commonly considered as related to intelligence, even if they are related indirectly. In this connection, intelligence tests are needed which will not conceal aptitudes.

Tests now are available for such areas as music (a talent which may, according to the experts, always require specialized testing), art, manual, clerical, and professional aptitudes as well as for the different school subjects. Following are some of the recognized special aptitude tests available to the school:

Meier Art Test: Test I: Art Judgment. Iowa City, Iowa: State University of Iowa, 1929-1942. Grades 7-12, and adults. Testing time: unlimited. The test consists of 100 plates, presented in pairs. One is a picture by a great artist; the other of the pair has been altered so as to reduce its artistic quality. Score is based upon the total number of correct selections. Reliability of the test is quoted as between .70 and .84. One criticism of this and other tests of artistic talent is that they seem to be greatly influenced by training; untrained talent is not identified.

Seashore Measures of Musical Talents. New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1919-1939. Grades 4-5, 6-8, and 9-16. The test consists of two series of double-faced phonograph records which were designed to measure sense of pitch, sense of intensity, sense of time, tonal memory, sense of rhythm, and sense of timbre. Validity studies are very limited. Reliability coefficients vary from .55 to .85.

Stanford Scientific Aptitude Test. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1930. Suitable for high school and college students. Testing time 60-120 minutes. The test was designed to measure 11 components of scientific aptitude. Although it is widely used in the field, it suffers from lack of extensive validity studies.

Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Tests. New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1940-1951. Grades 9 to adult. Testing time: approximately 30 minutes. Four forms: AA, BB, CC, in order of increasing difficulty, and WI for women. Each form contains 60 items. Test was designed to measure knowledge of physical principles. Validity and reliability studies report satisfactory results.

Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test. New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1930-1948. Grades: elementary, high school, and college. Testing time: 20 minutes. This is a paper-and-pencil test of 64 items in which the subject is asked to identify from five choices consisting of the disarranged parts of geometrical figures that set which would be identical with the criterion figure if assembled.

Achievement Tests

A high correlation exists between achievement and intelligence tests, but more specifically, perhaps, achievement tests are expected to reveal what has been assimilated over a period of time, usually in one specific area. Achievement tests (generally administered as a number or battery of tests) are, with reference to education, a measure of the changes which have resulted from school work. They have been administered, scored, and tabulated usually by each teacher for her

own pupils. Through these tests and the work connected with them it is possible for the teacher to gain much-needed insight into each pupil's development as well as into the problems of the entire class.

Achievement is thus a very important tool of pupil evaluation. Test scores have usually served as sound bases for prediction of future success or failure on the part of the individual as well as the group. Normally, the achievement test consists of 100 to 200 brief-answer questions. The building of such a test, simple though it may appear, must be carefully planned beforehand. Its execution must be equally considered. Traxler, who has done so much in the area, has recommended the following steps for the construction of effective achievement tests.

1. A survey of the aims or objectives in the subject, or subject field, for which the test is to be made through the use of textbooks, courses of study, and questionnaires to schools.
2. Selection of those purposes which are widely accepted and which can be measured.
3. A decision concerning the weight to be assigned to the different objectives; that is, the proportion of the test to be devoted to each objective.
4. Preparation of test items bearing upon the various objectives.
5. The setting up of a trial form of the test, including at least 50 percent more items than will be used in the final form.
6. Submission of the trial form to specialists for criticism.
7. Administration of the experimental form to several groups of pupils who are at the level or levels for which the test is being planned.
8. A statistical analysis of the items in terms of difficulty and validity as measured by a suitable criterion.
9. Selection of the best items for the final form of the test on the basis of the item analysis and the comments of critics who are preferably specialists in the field for which the test is prepared.
10. The scaling of the test on the basis of the performance of a defined criterion group so that it may be compared with other forms of the test and with tests in other fields.
11. The finding of norms for various ages, grades, or years of study.
12. The formulating of precise directions for administering and scoring so that it will be possible for all persons giving the test and scoring it to obtain identical results.
13. The collection and reporting of thorough statistical information on the reliability and validity of the test and the interpretation of these data in terms that persons who are not statisticians can understand.⁹

Examples of Achievement Tests

California Achievement Tests. Los Angeles, California: California Test Bureau. Five batteries for elementary or secondary levels:

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 76-77.

Primary, grades 1-4 (90-110 minutes); Elementary, grades 4-6 (120-135 minutes); Intermediate, grades 7-9 (150-165 minutes); and Advanced, grades 9-14 (150-165 minutes). Tests are essentially measures in areas of reading, language, and arithmetic. Some reviewers criticize the tests as to inadequate and inappropriate norms. Subtests are limited in diagnostic value.

SRA Achievement Tests. Chicago: Science Research Associates. Consists of twelve tests, four on each level designed as follows: grades 2-4, reading, language arts, arithmetic, and language precepts; grades 4-6, work-study skills, reading, language arts, and arithmetic; grades 6-9, work-study skills, reading, language arts, and arithmetic.

Cooperative General Achievement Tests, Revised Series. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service. Grades 10-12 and college entrants. Testing time: 40-45 minutes for each test. The three tests measure general proficiency in the fields of social studies, natural science, and mathematics. Knowledge of terms and concepts needed for an understanding of each field and students' ability to read and interpret typical data are included in the design of each test. The instruments are useful in placement or counseling of students in courses of study.

Stanford Achievement Tests. New York: World Book Co., 1953. Test batteries: Primary (grades 1.9-3.5); Elementary (grades 3.0-4.9); Intermediate (grades 5-6); Advanced (grades 7-9). Testing time: 80-215 minutes. All batteries include reading, spelling, and arithmetic; language is included in elementary and above; and social science, science, and study skills are included in intermediate and advanced. Reliabilities are satisfactory; items are well constructed; and manual is excellent.

Interest Tests

Aptitude and achievement are obviously related to interest. What motivates the individual is, of course, a central problem in all education.

Interests are difficult to measure because they are so closely related to considerations of personality, an area in which contention still runs deep. Interest tests have thus become more closely associated with personality evaluation than with aptitude or achievement, although all of these considerations are intimately related.

A knowledge of the student's interests, however, is essential to the guidance of his social and educational development. Thorpe writes that the young person's interests fall into four main categories: (1) intellectual; (2) motor, or activities which include play and sports;

(3) emotional, or those related to his needs; and (4) social or group activities.¹⁰

Information based upon these activities is needed to counsel the student. Why, for example, is a student motivated to success in some areas and simply bored or even resentful in other areas?

The entire area of interests is today receiving added emphasis. Increased leisure-time activities, for example, call for effective use of the person's interests, in this case, his hobbies. Hobbies, however, are not to be associated only with the aged. The young have demonstrated an amazing variety of interests ranging from stamp collecting to rocketry. Many of our scientists, not too strangely, have as young people, shown great interest in the phenomena of nature, taking up such hobbies as collecting butterflies, exploring rock formations, etc. Children need to be encouraged in forming hobbies early in life, since such pursuits will be of great comfort to them throughout their lives.

In addition to the use of standardized interest inventories there are other methods of determining an individual's interests. Following are three of them.

Personal Statement. In the interview a counselee may express preferences or aversions for activities and surroundings. The history of these statements may begin to add up to significant meanings, especially if they are based on meaningful experiences.

Information. A person's knowledge or information about an activity may be indicative of an interest. For example, a pupil may have spent hundreds of hours reading about rocketry, astronomy, or baseball. His knowledge of this activity is obviously a clue to his interests. Some tests, such as the Michigan Vocabulary Test, have been designed to indicate interest by measuring certain behavior such as word comprehension.

Manifest Interests. This method is closely related to the one above, for it means that a person manifests his real interests in his leisure time or work activities. When he is free to choose what he will, what does he do? Hobbies are thus one of the indications of interest. But avocational or hobby interests are not necessarily congruent with vocational interests.

Interest inventories which have been standardized do offer a systematic and objective way for surveying expressed interests. If test scores are related to manifest interests, achievement, abilities, and values they have significant values.

¹⁰ L. P. Thorpe, *Child Psychology and Development* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956), p. 276.

Examples of Interest Tests

Kuder Preference Record—Vocational. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1948–1953. Grades 9 and above. Testing time: 30–50 minutes. Perhaps the most widely used of all interest tests, it yields percentile scores in ten fields: outdoor, mechanical, computational, scientific, persuasive, artistic, literary, musical, social service, and clerical. This test is one of the most carefully constructed of all interest tests.

Strong Vocational Interest Blanks for Men and for Women. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1937–1951. For ages 17 and over. Testing time: approximately 40 minutes. This test is designed to reveal the extent to which a person's interests agree with those of persons in different specific occupations. A person's response of like, indifferent, or dislike to 400 questions is scored on a plus-or-minus basis. The responses are weighted and totaled to yield standard scores, for the various occupations. Scoring is involved and best done by machine. One place where machine scoring of this test can be done is Testscor at Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Occupational Interest Inventory. Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1943–1956. Designed to measure basic occupational interests. Includes six areas of interest: (1) personal-social, (2) natural, (3) mechanical, (4) business, (5) the arts, and (6) the sciences. In addition it includes three *types* of interest, namely, verbal, manipulative, and computational. Finally, it purports to measure levels of interest.

Sources of Information about Tests. The above brief descriptions of tests are necessarily limited. Each student is encouraged to take courses in tests and measurements. The bibliography at the end of this chapter is suggested for additional reading. *The Mental Measurements Yearbook*, edited by Buros, is probably the most complete reference about tests, their evaluation, their publishers, etc.

Recording of Test Results

In order to be of any value, information obtained from test results has to be interpreted and analyzed—a responsibility which also requires training. For it is at this point that the test offers a clue for further guidance. The school staff needs all the help possible to aid in interpretation of test results. This calls for a complete record of every student's testing results. Data is needed concerning each

pupil's capacities and achievement in order to carry out the classroom program.

The recording of information is, in one view of the realities of the testing program in terms of time and expense, a literal compromise. Ideally, *all* the information concerning the individual should be enclosed in the record. However the need is for a record that is compact and easy to file as well as being accessible to personnel who will require such data. In this connection considerations of durability and availability enter. Thorndike and Hagen sum it up this way:

Any actual record system is a compromise of . . . values. In the interest of compactness and ease of handling, the basic information is most often assembled on a large card or cards or printed on a file folder. Forms have been adapted for tray-type visible filing systems, and many schools have found these convenient. Often the card file is supplemented with a separate folder or envelope for each pupil, which can hold various types of more bulky material, and this is separately filed.¹¹

Functions of a School Testing Program

There are many specific functions of a school testing program. One of the best lists has been developed by Thorndike and Hagen. Their topic headings are here listed.

- A. Classroom functions
 - 1. Grouping pupils for instruction within a class.
 - 2. Guiding the planning of activities for specific individual pupils.
 - 3. Identifying pupils who need special diagnostic study and remedial instruction.
 - 4. Evaluating discrepancies between potentiality and achievement.
 - 5. Assigning course grades.
- B. Guidance functions
 - 1. Reporting progress to parents.
 - 2. Building realistic self-pictures.
 - 3. Helping the pupil with immediate choices.
 - 4. Helping the pupil set educational and vocational goals.
 - 5. Improving understanding of problem cases.
- C. Administrative functions
 - 1. Forming and assigning to classroom groups.
 - 2. Placing students transferred from other schools.
 - 3. Helping determine eligibility for special groups.
 - 4. Helping determine which pupils are to be promoted.
 - 5. Evaluating curricula, curricular emphases, and curricular experiments.
 - 6. Evaluating teachers.

¹¹ Thorndike and Hagen, *op. cit.*, p. 442.

7. Evaluating the school as a unit.
8. Improving public relations.
9. Providing information for outside agencies.¹²

Classroom Functions of a Testing Program. Several subsequent chapters, especially 8, 10, and 11, have more meaning if the teacher has learned of the uses in the teaching function of test and other data. A teacher's knowledge of the meaning of test scores is crucial. It is, therefore, essential to good teaching to be able to use test data properly. An appendix has been prepared to help teachers better understand the meaning of test scores. Nadine Lambert, a guidance consultant in a California school district, has prepared some specific helps for utilizing test scores for the teachers she visits. They center around the use and interpretation of scores on a class-record sheet. Her work is illustrative of the many ways guidance personnel help teachers in their instructional programs.

BELLFLOWER CITY SCHOOL DISTRICT
Special Services Division
Nadine Allen Lambert, Guidance Consultant
USE OF GROUP TEST RESULTS BY THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

USING THE CLASS RECORD SHEET TO DETERMINE INDIVIDUAL PUPIL NEEDS

When all materials have been recorded on the class record sheet, the following data will be available for each teacher's use in planning classroom activities.

1. The names of all children in the class are followed by Chronological Age (CA), Intelligence Quotient (IQ), Mental Age Grade Placement (MAGP) and subject scores on the achievement test given.
2. The Mental Age Grade Placement is computed from the Total IQ and CA. The MAGP for each child indicates the level of attainment which we can expect from a child with a given age and mental ability. This level of attainment hereafter is referred to as *expectancy*.
3. All scores on the achievement test are listed in grade placements. A score of 4|5 or 4.5 means that a child is working at a level considered average for fourth grade, fifth month (10 months in the school year). The achievement scores which are listed include the following:

Reading Vocabulary (RV)	Arithmetic Reasoning (AR)
Reading Comprehension (RC)	Arithmetic Fundamentals (AF)
Total Reading	Total Arithmetic
	Language (Mech.)
	Spelling
	Total Language

In some cases the total scores for Reading, Arithmetic and Language areas are omitted in the preparation of the class record sheet.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 423.

The teacher may use the class record sheet for many purposes. One valuable use for the class record sheet is to recognize individuals who need special help in skill subject areas by comparing their achievement with their expectancy. For all grades an achievement score which is more than one year above or below expectancy indicates a child who needs special consideration.

MARKING THE CLASS RECORD SHEET TO HIGHLIGHT INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP NEEDS

A plan of marking each class record sheet so that a teacher may quickly identify those children who may need special help in specific skill development areas is outlined.* After using this system to mark the class record sheet, those children in the class with similar instructional needs, who can be grouped together for special emphasis, can be determined. This method of marking the class list is illustrated on a subsequent page. The explanation for each type of marking is as follows:

1. Where the two scores in reading, arithmetic or language fall more than one grade below expectancy, they shall be outlined in a colored pencil.

Exp.	RV	RC
2.3	3.1	3.8
6.2	3.4	4.3
3.2	3.9	3.9
4.5	2.7	
4.0	3.1	3.8

Where there is a score for only one sub-test (because a child missed a part of the test) in reading, arithmetic or language, it shall be outlined in the same fashion as indicated in the above example.

2. Where only one of the sub-test scores in reading, arithmetic or language is below expectancy, or where the two reading or two arithmetic sub-tests are widely divergent, an arrow points out the sub-test area which needs consideration. This method of checking the areas gives a quick indication of such situations as reading vocabulary being lower than comprehension, etc.

Exp.	RV	RC	AR	AF	L	Sp	Total
6.5	4.4 ←	5.9	5.8	5.7	6.0	→ 5.4	4.9
3.0?	2.8	4.0	3.1	2.5	3.2	3.3	3.0
	2.4 ←	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.3	4.5	3.5
3.8	2.9		2.4 ←	3.5	4.7	4.5	4.0

Where there is no IQ score, hence no expectancy, this system of marking can be used if the teacher examines the scores and marks those sub-test areas where the achievement grade placement seems considerably lower than the remainder of the pupil's performance.

3. These markings call attention quickly to the areas where children are performing significantly below their expectancy or have widely variant sub-test scores and therefore need special emphasis.
4. If a pupil has achievement test scores which are more than one grade level above his expectancy, a question mark (?) is placed beside his IQ score. Such a marking calls the teacher's attention to the need for evaluating the pupil's rate of learning to determine whether he is overlearning, whether he is under undue pressure to achieve, or whether there is a need for an additional check on his ability.

* Developed from a suggestion by J. Richard Harsh, Research and Guidance Consultant, Los Angeles County Schools.

MARKING THE CLASS RECORD SHEET TO HIGHLIGHT INDIVIDUAL LEARNING PROBLEMS

The following notations are written on the class record sheet and indicate individual learning problems as well as the need for special types of referral. These notations are written to the right of the total IQ score.

1. *HAP (High Academic Potential).* If a child's IQ score is 130 or above, he should be referred for HAP testing when it is scheduled. If a child's IQ score is lower than 130, but his reading comprehension score is one of the highest or the highest in the classroom, he should also be referred.
2. *Enrichment.* Children with IQ's above 115 who are working at expectancy should be considered for an enrichment program. They may need additional activities to insure continuing motivation and growth.
3. *Unchallenged.* Children with IQ's above 115 who fall below their expectancy in achievement and who are working only at grade level or below, may be candidates for an enrichment program. They may need an individual study to facilitate investigation of their special interests and needs in order to determine what type of learning materials would be most appropriate in challenging their abilities. They may qualify for referral for remedial reading activities as well. In such a case two notations would then be made by their names.
4. *Remedial.* Children who have IQ scores of 90 or higher and who are working two years below expectancy may be candidates for the Better Reading Program and/or special study. Referral should be made to the Better Reading Chairman before the testing period occurs.
5. *Ability Check.* Where a question mark has been written beside an IQ score, this indicates a need for an ability check. Those children whose IQ's do not seem valid in comparison with their achievement may need to have a pick-up group intelligence test administered in order to determine the level of achievement which can be expected. If the teacher has other concerns about the child's social and personal adjustment, he may want to refer the pupil for a special study by a member of the Guidance Staff.
6. *Overlearning.* A child who is working above expectancy and for whom the IQ seems accurate, may need individual attention to consider the effect of possible pressure. This type of stress may be interfering with the child's optimum personal adjustment.
7. *Overage.* Referral for grade adjustment needs to be made when a child is too old for his grade placement. Such children may be those who have just come into our district from out-of-state. The following table will give the teacher an approximate idea of the age limits for each grade. Those children who are older than the age listed for each grade should be considered.

Third Grade	9 years, 10 months	Sixth Grade	12 years, 10 months
Fourth Grade	10 years, 10 months	Seventh Grade	13 years, 10 months
Fifth Grade	11 years, 10 months	Eighth Grade	14 years, 10 months

8. *Special Training.* Children who have IQ's of 80 or below and who are working at or below expectancy may be referred for study as possible candidates for special training.

USING THE MARKED CLASS RECORD SHEET FOR GROUPING

A general type of classroom grouping may be suggested from the group test results. That is, where the teacher places children with similar levels of development in a particular skill in the same group. Most classes have three such groups in which children are placed depending upon performance in the classroom as well as upon objective test results.

The use of group test results in connection with grouping is suggested so that the teacher may note those pupils who may need additional help in developing skills in reading, arithmetic or language which are consistent with their expectancy. Groups which are organized on the basis of specific needs may require only temporary help and then can be regrouped for subsequent activities.

After the suggested system for marking the class record sheet has been completed, the teacher may readily assess those areas where special emphasis need be given. By grouping children with similar problems it may be possible to work on specific learning problems until a stronger foundation in the skill areas has been gained.

Some additional factors need to be considered in conjunction with the test data when children are to be grouped.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. similar ability 2. comparable level of attainment 3. mutual social acceptance | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. need for specific help in a skill area, for example, in subtraction: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. simple subtraction combinations b. zero difficulty c. re-grouping |
|--|---|

By observing the marks on the class record sheet, the teacher may note the special types of help which some children may need. It may be helpful for a teacher to list those children who fall in each of the following categories. By using test booklets (if they are available) or teacher-made diagnostic tests, a further evaluation can be made of these children. By using the diagnostic summaries provided on the back cover sheets of the test an excellent outline of representative levels of difficulty is provided. More extensive help in providing for these needs may be obtained through the Curriculum Division.

1. *Vocabulary Growth.* Arrows pointing toward Reading Vocabulary scores indicate children who need help in this area. The teacher will want to determine whether the difficulty is in knowledge of words for specific subject matter areas or whether the problem is one of lack of knowledge of general vocabulary. Children with such need may work together on vocabulary building activities.

2. *Growth in Reading for Meaning.* Children who need opportunities for growth in reading comprehension skills will have arrows pointing toward this score on the class record sheet. The low score may be due to several factors, among which are lack of basic sight vocabulary, slow speed, as well as inability to get meaning from printed words. By means of a further evaluation, the teacher may identify children with similar difficulties who may work together.

3. *Growth in Arithmetic Fundamentals.* The need for help in this particular area is indicated by arrows pointing toward the test score. When the teacher uses individual children's test booklets in a diagnostic summary, he may be able to uncover the particular difficulty which may be hindering further performance. Children with particular needs which are similar may work together. A group working on simple combinations may be necessary. Other groups working on carrying in multiplication, bridging in with the zero difficulty, etc. may be organized where the need is found.

4. *Growth in Analysis of Arithmetic Problems.* Children with this problem are differentiated when the scores in Arithmetic Fundamentals and Reading Comprehension are within expectancy, but the Arithmetic Reasoning score is low. If such is the case we can rule out the possibility that the poor reading skills is influencing the test score in arithmetic reasoning. Children who have the colored arrow pointing to this test score need special help in analyzing word problems in arithmetic.

5. *Growth in Reading Skills.* When both scores in reading are outlined, the need for help in skill development in the reading area is indicated. The IQ score may indicate the type of help which a particular child needs.

1. remedial types of help for children who are in the average range of ability
2. special materials for the slow learning child.
3. enrichment activities for those children of fast moving ability.

6. *Growth in Arithmetic Skills.* When both arithmetic scores fall below expectancy and are outlined on the class record sheet, there is indication of need for opportunities to develop numerical concepts consistent with ability. The IQ score is valuable in determining the type of program which would be applicable for a particular child.

1. remedial types of help for children who are in the average range of ability.
2. special materials for the slow learning child.
3. enrichment activities for those children of fast moving ability.

USING THE DIAGNOSTIC SUMMARIES FOR CLASSROOM REVIEW

The diagnostic summaries on the back of every test booklet and printed within the test manual offer a valuable breakdown of the tests in terms of developmental processes within subject areas. When a child's test scores indicate that he needs special help, the teacher can compare errors made on the test booklet with the developmental sequence on the diagnostic summary. A basis for review of material is then found. Several children who are having trouble at the same level of difficulty can work together on review material regardless of their reading or arithmetic group. It is possible that children in any group may be confused about the zero difficulty in subtraction. They could work together on materials devised to meet their need and discontinue their group when the difficulty had been resolved. Such groupings for review are temporary. The teacher may find time to work with these groups when the remainder of the class is having a free activity or a work period.

For review purposes the diagnostic summaries may also be used to assess needs of the total class. To aid the teacher in summarizing areas of difficulty within a skill, the booklets without pupils' names can be returned to the students, and the teacher may have the class help in diagnosing general classroom needs. Using the arithmetic fundamentals section, for example, the teacher may ask children to raise their hands if the paper they are checking shows a problem is wrong. The teacher then marks the number of errors in the appropriate space on the diagnostic summary. When a great number of pupils miss problems, the teacher may then wish to go back to the test material and determine the particular difficulty which they are having. Some of the review activities may be conducted with the class as a whole, but many may need to be incorporated in daily lesson activities with the various ability groups.

To aid the teacher in making such a diagnostic summary of her class the Guidance Consultant has reproduced diagnostic summary sheets for each test area. The teacher may find that these materials are more convenient for such use as outlined. Requests for copies may be made to the Guidance Consultant at any time.

USING THE CLASS RECORD SHEET TO ORDER APPROPRIATE LIBRARY MATERIALS

Forms are available by which each teacher can make a distribution of grade placements in the skill areas for his class. Such a distribution is valuable to the teacher because it offers a means of quickly evaluating the range of achievement and the range of ability in the classroom. If the level of achievement for a particular class seems lower than one would expect at that grade, the distribution of scores in reading or arithmetic for example, will indicate what levels of text-book material seem appropriate. The Coordinator of Curriculum Materials will be glad to work with any teacher to adjust the level of material to suit the needs of a particular class. It is important, however, that the teacher have some evidence of the nature of the class achievement. The distribution of scores in each area will provide information by which appropriate curriculum materials can be chosen.

CLASS RECORD SHEET

School: Hamilton Teacher: Glaswell

Actual Grade Placement: 4.1 Date: October 1954

Name	C.A. Mos.	Total I.Q.	M.A. G.P.	Read. Vocab.	Read. Comp.	Arith. Reas.	Arith. Fund.	Lang.	Spelling	Total Test
Anita	113	104 Remed.	4.5	2.7		2.8 ← 3.8	3.6			
Bob	116			3.2	3.2	3.5	4.0	4.4	3.9	3.7
Buddy	105	131 HAP	6.2	5.2	5.3	5.0 → 3.9	5.5	5.4	5.0	
Dale	108	126	6.0	6.0	5.1	4.8	4.1	6.5	6.8	5.4
David	112			4.7	5.0	4.9	4.0	5.4	5.6	4.9
Dennis	111	137 { HAP Enrich.	7.3	3.2	3.9	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.5	4.2
Douglas	111	94	3.4	2.5	2.4	3.1	3.9	4.9	4.3	3.4
Eunice	112	99	4.0	3.1	3.8	3.5	3.9	4.1	3.9	3.7
Galia	113	126	6.5	4.4	5.9	4.8	4.1	5.3	4.6	4.9
Janette	117	85 ?	3.0	2.8	3.8	3.9	3.6	4.0	3.9	3.5
Janice	108	101	3.8	3.2	4.0	3.7	5.0	4.7	3.9	4.1
John	116	100	4.4	3.6	3.5	3.9	3.9	4.5	4.3	3.9
Juoy	118	83	2.9	2.4	1.8	2.4	3.4	2.0		
Karen	113	80 ?	2.3	3.1	3.8	3.7	3.9	4.0	3.9	3.7
LeRoy	114	122 Enrich.	6.2	3.4	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.6	4.1
Linda	104	86 Press. ?	2.2	3.9	3.9	4.0	3.8	4.9	4.5	4.2
Louise	120			4.9	4.2	4.8	4.7	5.0	4.3	4.7
Margaret	117			5.8	6.0	5.5	5.2	7.3	6.5	6.0
Marie	124	88 { HAP Enrich.	3.8	2.9		2.4	3.5	2.7		
Marilyn	111	135 { HAP Enrich.	7.2	3.5	3.8	4.1	3.5	4.7	4.5	4.0
Mary	111			3.8	4.1	4.4	3.7	4.4	4.6	4.1
Nancy	116			2.4	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.3	4.5	3.5
Ronnie	115			3.6	2.6	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.3	3.9
Ruthanne	115			5.2	4.2	4.2	4.4	5.2	5.8	4.7
Sharon	105	109	4.2	3.2	3.7	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.5	3.7
Shirley	120	89	3.7	3.3	4.4	3.6	3.7	3.7	2.7	3.8
Ted	125	117 Remed.	6.8	2.4	2.1	3.5	4.2	2.6		
Tommy	108	105	4.2	2.5	3.2	4.0	4.0	3.7	4.1	3.4
Toni Rae	111	125 Enrich.	6.2	4.5	3.9	4.2	4.6	4.9	4.1	4.5
Vicky	125	73 S/T	2.4	2.1	1.8	1.5	2.5	2.4	2.7	2.0
Virginia	109	118	5.5	4.2	5.0	4.4	4.6	6.2	5.9	5.0

Use of Test Data in the Guidance Function

The problem of national security in an age of inter-continental missiles and space travel as in all periods of national emergency, has focused attention on the need for helping each person become a productive and contributing citizen. Thus, the emphasis upon helping an individual better assess his strengths and weaknesses in terms of potential contribution has increased the need for testing programs.

Large Scale Programs of Testing for Guidance. In 1957-58 a national committee sponsored by the Educational Testing Service held many conferences out of which came plans for a model testing program. The suggestions are for state-wide testing of children in grades 7-9 as a means of finding the "brain power of America." Emphasis is upon measurement of academic capacity and achievement. The test results will be used for guidance purposes, or, in other words, to help each pupil to understand himself better that he may take proper self-direction.¹³ It is not the intent of this testing program to use tests for evaluation of instruction.

It is not the responsibility of the local teacher or counselor to establish the state programs, but he might lend support to them. The major task of the counselor will be that of counseling with the pupils before and after the testing program.

Building Realistic Self-Pictures. This is, obviously, the most important objective of the guidance use of tests. It cannot be accomplished, however, by just administering tests, scoring them, and briefly reporting scores to a person. Test scores have to be related to the experiences of an individual. A 50th percentile on the Army General Classification Test, for example, may have no meaning to a high school senior unless he has learned from his life activities that he is about average in ability.

Helping the Pupil with Immediate Choices. The pupil, particularly at the high school level, has a certain number of choices to make. Should he, for example, continue with his education or go out to work? These are among the questions which he will have to answer in due time. Even in the school he must decide whether to take certain courses or determine in which of the alternate programs he plans to enroll. The evidence provided by a testing program can enter into the thinking of pupil and counselor about these choices.

Helping the Pupil to Set Educational and Vocational Goals. The self-understanding built up through effective guidance based on objective-test results can influence the pupil's choice in terms of a career. In addition to providing information which contributes to the individual's long-range planning for further education or work, a testing program can provide the information needed for immediate choices in the school. (See illustrations in Chapter 13.)

¹³ Further information may be obtained from the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, or Hollywood, California.

Improving Understanding of Problem Cases. Every school has its quota of "the unruly, the withdrawn, the unhappy, the educationally retarded," in addition to those others who for one reason or another do not fit into the desired patterns of school life. An effective testing program combined with an adequate record system helps provide some of the background which has contributed to this maladjustment. It is a commonplace of psychology that every present problem has its roots in the past. Records of regular testing follow back at least some of these roots and throw some light on the present problem.

School testing programs should include facilities for more intensive study of these pupils who present special problems. Such testing would be distinct from but should supplement the uniform program applied to all pupils. In this special-testing service, there needs to be a wide variety of testing techniques to fit the needs of the specific case. Deep-seated problems of maladjustment obviously require a different approach than do the usual problems which accompany everyday living.

Reporting Progress to Parents. Teachers and counselors have the responsibility of keeping the parents informed of the progress of their children. In addition to the pupil's academic progress, reports to parents should include valid information which will help them to better understand their child, thus increasing their capacity to advise and teach the child.

The vehicles for parent contact are normally report cards, conferences (see Form 7-1), and parent-teacher organizations. More and more counselors are arranging for conferences with a student and his parents to discuss vocational and educational plans. As parents and pupils receive more instruction in the interpretation of test scores achievement, interest, and special-aptitude test scores are sent home. *Under no circumstances should specific mental ability or personality test scores be sent home*, although their meaning may be discussed in general terms.

It is through evaluation that the guidance program is better able to reach its goals. Following are some apparent trends which have developed in the appraisal and reporting of pupil progress.

1. There is a two-way trend away from and toward systems which compare a pupil's progress with the class. Some schools wish to grade each pupil according to his ability and others grade on a "competitive" basis.

2. There is a widespread movement toward evaluation of personality and character traits in addition to subject-matter achievement.

FORM 7-1

PARENT-CONFERENCE REPORT FORM

PARENT COPY

PASADENA CITY SCHOOLS
PASADENA, CALIFORNIACONFERENCE REPORT
Grades 4, 5 and 6

NAME _____ SCHOOL _____ DATE _____

The purpose of the conference is to provide an opportunity for personal and direct two-way communication between the home and the school. The school program is planned to promote growth in fundamental skills and knowledges, work habits, citizenship, and social adjustment. The conference emphasizes the child's progress as an individual and his growth in terms of the teacher's understanding of his ability.

SIGNIFICANT BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDES:

(Possible areas to be considered are health, citizenship, work habits, family and peer relationships, special interests and aptitudes, goals set for child by parent, child's attitude toward school.)

YOUR CHILD:

Is doing his best work in _____

Needs to improve in _____

TEST RESULTS:

Standardized tests in skill subjects give insight into only a part of the total school program. It is important to remember that test scores are not absolutes—various factors may condition results of a test given at any one time. However, it is believed that these results are valuable if considered with other factors relating to the child's school progress. These test results are given in terms of grade placement. The norm for this grade at the time the tests were administered was _____. On the recent tests your child placed as follows:

READING		ARITHMETIC		LANGUAGE (Grades 5 and 6 Only)	
Vocabulary	Comprehension	Computation	Reasoning	Mechanics	Spelling

SUGGESTED WAYS TO HELP THE CHILD: _____

Signature of Teacher_____
Signature of Parent

3. There is a marked increase in the use of qualitative and descriptive reports in lieu of single quantitative scores. Letters to the home and parent conferences are typical. This trend seems to have reduced the number of reportings to the home and spread the reporting period over a longer length of time.

4. There is a trend toward increased participation of the parents in the development of the reporting form; in some instances pupils have helped devise forms.

5. There is a trend toward evaluating progress in terms of recognized and accepted objectives of the school. Thus, if parents participate in developing school policy, this type of reporting has greater meaning and can cover a broader base; for example, health and participation in character-building programs may be evaluated.

The Cumulative Record

Thus far in Chapters 6 and 7 many different techniques for understanding the individual have been presented. It is reasonable, therefore, that attention be focused upon the use and value of the cumulative record, which is underscored by every writer in the guidance field. All agree that the collection and comparison of a variety of test scores, anecdotal records, health reports, grades, group activities, etc., will only lead to confusion for the teacher and counselor unless all of the information is systematically organized and recorded. The cumulative record should be developed to accomplish this task.

The results of all tests administered to the pupil throughout his stay at school as well as all other relevant data concerning him should be recorded in the cumulative folder. Unless all of the guidance workers do have adequate data about each pupil they should postpone any placement or counseling of a pupil. Like physicians, guidance workers should not attempt treatment without proper diagnosis.

The cumulative record on each child should accompany him throughout his progress from grade to grade and school to school. Stored in a central location this developmental record provides the fullest possible information about each student to interested school personnel.

Few school functions, indeed, call more persistently for the cooperation of the total educational team or provide richer rewards for such cooperation than the perceptive keeping, sharing, and use of educational records. Records have proved indispensable not only in evaluating the present but in planning the future. What other edu-

cational service provides aspects of interest to administrators, nurses, doctors, welfare and attendance workers, and psychologists as well as to teachers? The very nature of the recording function is one which makes for cooperation among school workers.

Use of Cumulative Records. The information in properly completed cumulative records becomes the basis for most guidance services. Some of their uses indicate they are most helpful:

1. In revealing information concerning the previous experiences of the pupils as individuals.
2. In providing information about group activities.
3. In the organization of needed curriculum or guidance experiences.
4. In the evaluation of pupils.
5. In the evaluation of different curricula.
6. In working out certain administrative procedures—district-wide, inter-district, county, or state-wide.
7. In recording the present experiences of pupils.
8. In carrying out research on the adequacy or results of education, or research on such important considerations as personality variables.
9. In grouping pupils within classes for more effective use of time and effort.
10. In assigning students to particular classes, i.e., the placement services.

The cumulative-record forms developed by a California state-wide committee are reproduced (by permission of A. Carlisle Company, San Francisco, California) to illustrate the kinds of information which might be accumulated. Three forms constitute the set: (1) a four-page folder for the elementary level (Form 7-2); (2) a four-page folder for the secondary level (Form 7-3); and (3) a single card (not reproduced here) with printing on both sides for use at the junior college level. If accurately completed over a fourteen-year period, the forms become an invaluable developmental history of a student.

As means of insuring the use of the cumulative record the California legislature added the following section to the *California Education Code, Title 5*.

24676. Whenever a pupil transfers from one school district to another within this State, the cumulative record of the pupil, which shall be available to the pupil's parent for inspection on request, shall be transferred to the district to which the pupil transfers; provided, a request for such cumulative record is received from the district to which the transfer is made. The State Board of Education is hereby authorized to adopt rules and regu-

lations concerning the transfer of cumulative records from one school district to another. The effective date of this section shall be July 1, 1960.

At least two results of this legislature, which permits parent inspection and requires transfer of records, may be: (1) improved record keeping and (2) more and better parent conferences.

Case Study and Case Conference

It is generally agreed that a developmental or cumulative record should be maintained and kept up to date for each pupil from the time he enters school until he finishes high school. Summaries of the record should then be available to any college or employer.

There are many pupils, however, whose behavior warrants or requires more intensive study. The case study represents, then, an attempt to collect all possible data about a student which may be brought together to form a unified background for evaluation in terms of a specific problem or series of problems. The case study is a report of an intensive analysis of an individual. The case conference is a means whereby case data are interpreted in terms of projected action. Both techniques represent teamwork at its highest level.

The case study and case conference are together based upon the assumption that complete information—and subsequent analyses of this information—is necessary for the effective appraisal of the “whole” individual. Such techniques assist the teacher and other interested personnel in recognizing individual needs.

The individual needs to be observed in home, school, and general play, or social environment, in order for the observer to understand him fully. The case study is a technique concerned with all the pertinent aspects of a single unit. Thus as many as possible of the factors and the combination of factors involved in a given behavior are analyzed to determine the existing status and to define the causal factors operating.¹⁴

The case conference, as distinct from the case study, is a means for a number of personnel workers to understand the individual and his condition more completely. Such understanding should lead to concerted action since each member of the group involved re-enforces the work of the other. The group consensus is likely to prove of greater value than is the interpretation obtained by one individual.

¹⁴ A. J. Jones, *Principles of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951) p. 228.

CALIFORNIA CUMULATIVE RECORD
ELEMENTARY FORM

Confidential Information for use by Professional Personnel

1. IDENTIFICATION DATA

1. IDENTIFICATION DATA			CHECK SIX		
LAST NAME		FIRST NAME	MIDDLE NAME	M	F
BIRTH DATE	BIRTH DATE VERIFICATION	NICKNAME (Pencil)		PLACE OF BIRTH	
				CITY (OR COUNTY)	
				STATE (OR NATION)	

PHOTOGRAPHS

HOME		IN CASE OF EMERGENCY NOTIFY		DATES PHOTOGRAPHED (Per-01)		SCHOOL DISTRICT	
NAME	ADDRESS	NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE	NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
COMMENTS		COMMENTS		COMMENTS		COMMENTS	

2. GROUP SCHOLASTIC CAPACITY TESTS (LABEL OTHER SUB SCORES USED, e.g., PERFORMANCE, PERCEPTION, ETC. DOUBLE SPACES PROVIDED.)

[illegible]

3. INDIVIDUAL TESTS

[illegible]

4. GROUP ACHIEVEMENT TESTS (Including Reading Readiness)

[illegible]

5. PERSONALITY AND INTEREST INVENTORIES, APTITUDE TESTS, AND OTHER TESTS

[illegible]

FORM 7-2 (CONTINUED)

6. INFORMATION CONCERNING INDIVIDUAL ADJUSTMENT

YEAR AND GRADE	INTERESTS, ACTIVITIES, LEADERSHIP	FAMILY AND HOME RELATIONSHIPS OUT OF SCHOOL RESPONSIBILITIES	ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS ABOUT: SELF PEER; SCHOOL	REFERRALS TO SCHOOL SERVICE AND/OR COMMUNITY AGENCIES
YEAR 17 -19				
KINDERGARTEN				
YEAR 18 -17				
GRADE				
YEAR 19 -18				
GRADE				
YEAR 19 -19				
GRADE				
YEAR 19 -19				
GRADE				
YEAR 19 -17				
GRADE				
YEAR 19 -17				
GRADE				
YEAR 19 -17				
GRADE				
YEAR 19 -18				
GRADE				
YEAR 19 -18				
GRADE				

FORM 7-2 (CONTINUED)

8. SCHOOL HISTORY

[illegible]

FORM 7-3 CUMULATIVE RECORD FORM—SECONDARY

1. IDENTIFICATION DATA (Confidential Information for use by Professional Personnel) Last Name First Name Middle Name

DATE OF BIRTH: Mo. Year Day Year
Place of Birth: M F
HOW YERIFIED: City State

PHOTOGRAPHS

FILE NO.

CALIFORNIA CUMULATIVE RECORD JUNIOR-SENIOR-FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL FORM

SCHOOL DISTRICT: _____
SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER: _____
DATES PHOTOGRAPHED: _____
BEGIN FOUR YEAR HIGH SCHOOL RECORD HERE

2. JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL RECORD										BEGIN FOUR YEAR HIGH SCHOOL RECORD HERE																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																										
SCHOOL	DATE OF ENTRANCE	DATE OF LEAVING	TRANSFERRED TO	SEMESTER ENDING	ADVISER	LOW 7				HIGH 7				LOW 8				HIGH 8				LOW 9				HIGH 9				L7 CURRENT	L8	L9 CURRENT	L10 CUMULATIVE																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																			
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3. SENIOR AND FOUR YEAR HIGH SCHOOL RECORD

SCHOOL																			
DATE OF ENTRANCE																			
DATE OF LEAVING																			
TRANSFERRED TO																			
SEMESTER ENDING																			
ADVISED																			
CURRICULUM & MAJOR																			
GENERAL SUBJECT FIELD																			
LOW 10																			
HIGH 10																			
LOW 11																			
HIGH 11																			
LOW 12																			
HIGH 12																			
LOW 13																			
HIGH 13																			

FORM 7-3 (CONTINUED)

[illegible]

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FORM 7-3 (CONTINUED)

15. INFORMATION CONCERNING HOME				16. HOME ADDRESS		17. HOME BACKGROUND	
NAME	SEP.	LEGAL GUARD.	DATE				
FATHER						LANGUAGE BACKGROUND	
MOTHER							
STEPFATHER						SIBLINGS—OLDER	
STEPMOTHER							
GUARDIAN						SIBLINGS—YOUNGER	
DATE	OCCUPATION OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN		RELATIONSHIP	BUSINESS ADDRESS			
						OTHER DATA	

18. SIGNIFICANT INFORMATION (DATE AND INITIAL EACH ENTRY)						
	GRADE 7	GRADE 8	GRADE 9	GRADE 10	GRADE 11	GRADE 12
FAMILY AND HOME RELATIONSHIPS						
ATTENDANCE						
HEALTH						
MATURATION CHARACTERISTICS						
ACCOMPLISHMENTS AND HONORS						
INTERESTS AND ACTIVITIES						
EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL PLANS						
REFERRAL TO SCHOOLS SERVICES AND/OR COMMUNITY AGENCIES						
ADDITIONAL COMMENTS						

Actually, the person who is most familiar with the individual's case history collects and synthesizes all the information about him and then presents it to those at the conference for evaluation. Conference members use this information along with any of their own to submit opinions as to the best means for helping the individual. The case conference is thus coincidentally an excellent in-service training procedure for teachers because through such conferences information from specialists not normally available is given to them to interpret and use in their own work.

The case study, then, represents the individual gathering and analysis of information about a specific person. The counselor may complete a case study for a normal student, but the social worker or psychologist is usually needed for the maladjusted individual. The worker who makes the case study not only must collect a minimum amount of material but must so organize it that valid inferences may be drawn. Darley discusses this matter as follows:

Admittedly the structure of case work and the minimum quantity of data within the structure are not perfectly correlated with *effective* diagnosis and counseling of the individual student. The skill of the competent practitioner is still indispensable as the vitalizing force to make the data meaningful and patterned for the individual. But it is safe to say, that without a defined minimum of case material and without a structure to give it coherence, case work is either impossible, or inadequate, even though case work may still be inadequate when a poor counselor is operating with essential data.¹⁵

Correctly structured and adequately organized, the case study serves as an excellent means for observing the characteristics, attitudes, and actions of the individual in terms of physical health, academic aptitude and achievement, and personal and social adjustment. This is because the case study will include such factors as: (1) identification of the individual, (2) home conditions, (3) personal-social development, (4) interests and recreation, and (5) education completed, (6) work experiences, and (7) financial status—if an adult. All techniques which have been previously discussed in Chapters 6 and 7, if pertinent to a given case, may be utilized in gathering the data.

The case-study method assumes that prediction of behavior for each person is an individualized process. The superior students especially, some claim, manifest more individuality.

¹⁵ J. G. Darley, "The Structure of the Systematic Case Study in Individual Diagnosis and Counseling," in A. H. Brayfield, (Ed.), *Readings in Modern Methods of Counseling* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950), pp. 41-47.

Suggested Procedures for Case Conferences. Each individual school, school district, community, or combination thereof may organize case conferences for the purposes of discovering children with difficulties and examining, diagnosing, and referring them.

Within a school the case-conference committee may include the administrators, pupil personnel specialists, one or two teachers, and one or two specialists from the community such as a probation officer or a physician as the case suggests. Community case-conference committees should include representatives of all pertinent organizations, including schools, law-enforcement agencies, social agencies, local ministers, recreation directors, public health nurses, and others as the occasion demands.

The organizational structure usually has a chairman and a secretary. The chairman presides at all meetings. He is responsible for the agenda, and, unless the function is otherwise delegated, accepts cases in advance for discussion at a given meeting.

The counselor, case-worker, or psychologist who prepares the case presents it to the committee, who discuss it. Upon the basis of warranted interpretation, recommendations are made. The committee itself does not attempt treatment.

The minutes of each meeting, which may also serve as notice for the next meeting, might include: committee name, date, members and invited representatives present, suggestions and announcements, follow-up of previous cases, new cases, next meeting, and cases to be discussed at next meeting.¹⁶

Although all guidance personnel recognize the importance of such a statement, it needs to be said that all case data are confidential and must be respected according to accepted professional practices.

Summary

Techniques of individual appraisal are an indispensable part of the guidance program. They must not, however, be confused with the guidance program itself since they are but techniques designed to expedite progress. The pupil must be appraised quantitatively as well as qualitatively. This statement is particularly apropos of guidance, which lays so great an emphasis upon individuality and personal worth.

¹⁶ *Manual For Case Conference Committees*, Community Coordinating Councils, Los Angeles County, 1956.

Most guidance workers now possess a quite new awareness both of the complexity of human behavior and of the element of possible error which is tied in with the effort to appraise and understand the individual. One has only to compare, for instance, the present techniques of appraisal with the old ones to see how much more depth and breadth have been added to our judgments. Techniques for individual appraisal are now considered as tools for our understanding of personality development. The belief in their infallibility has long since gone. Nevertheless techniques represent our chief weapons for carrying out the purposes of guidance. Human behavior is most effectively measured by scientific methods. The important thing to remember is that individuals must be approached with relation to the whole problem. Interpreted thus, understanding and appreciation of individual appraisal makes the effective guidance program possible. The next chapter will explore the implications presented by the guidance-oriented curriculum, a curriculum which depends heavily on a program of individual appraisal.

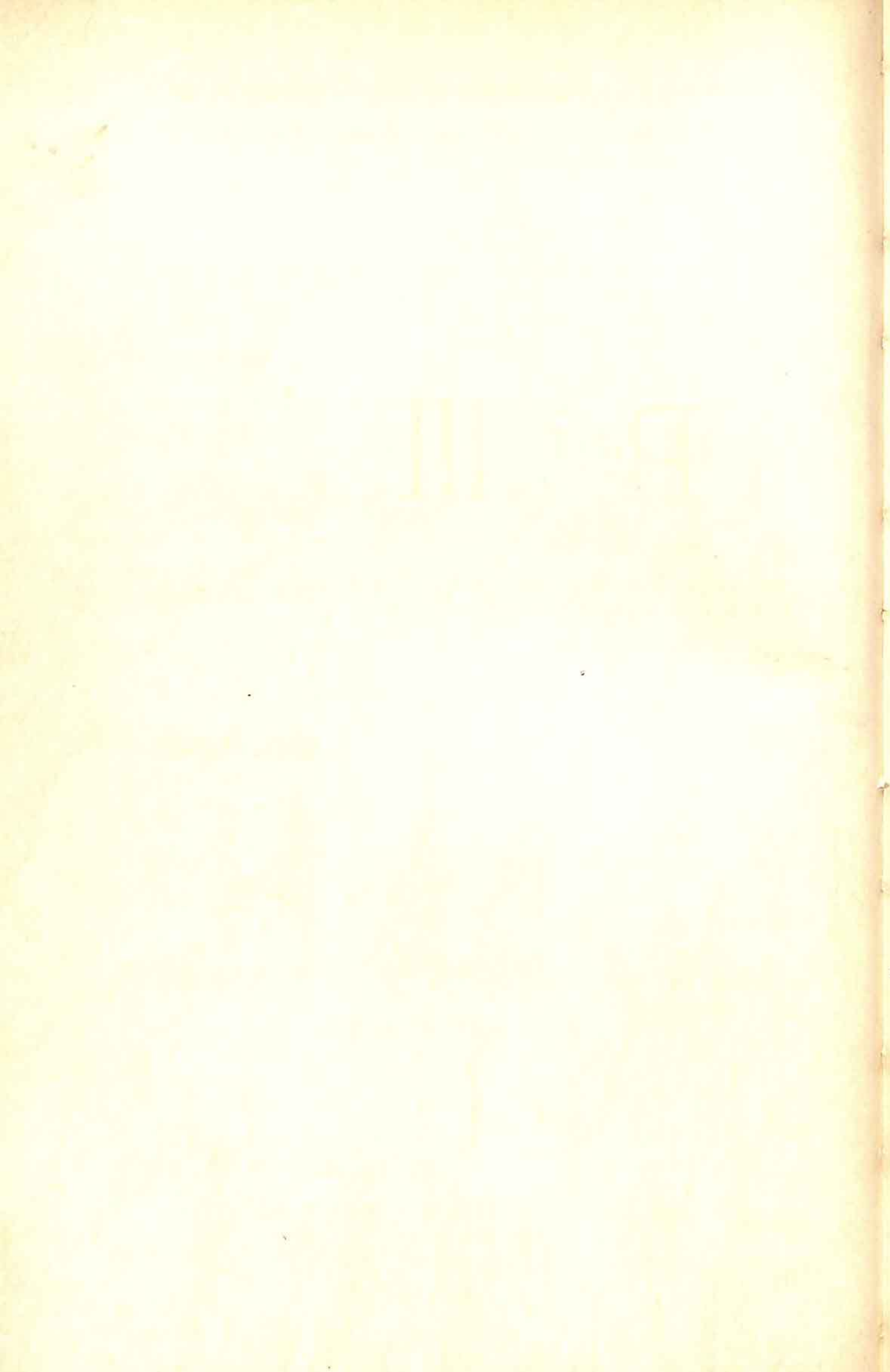
Suggested Problems

1. Why must test scores be interpreted against an individual's personal history?
2. From *The Mental Measurements Yearbook* describe and evaluate a test which you might use in a school situation.
3. Compute the mean and median chronological ages of the pupils listed in the Bellflower illustration.
4. What are the most frequently used measures of tendency? Measures of variability? Measures of relationship?
5. Why is validity the most important quality of a test? How is an interest test validated?
6. From a book on testing find out how an achievement test is standardized. Describe the steps.
7. What interest tests are appropriate for use by eighth-grade pupils?
8. Describe some of the practices currently in use for identifying the rapid learners.

Suggested Readings

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- Greene, E. G., *Measurements of Human Behavior*. (Rev. ed.) New York: The Odyssey Press, 1954.
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- Rothney, J. W. M., and B. A. Roens, *Counseling the Individual Student*. New York: William Sloane Associates, 1949.
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- Traxler, A. E., et al., *Introduction to Testing and the Use of Test Results in Public Schools*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953.
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Part III

*Meeting
the Needs
of
the Pupils
in
the School
Program*



Chapter 8

Guidance-Oriented Curriculum

The curriculum is one of the most effective vehicles for the expression of the guidance philosophy in the school. Research into individual development has underscored the need for the optimum classroom environment. In view of this and other like considerations the design of the curriculum as it relates to the guidance program becomes of fundamental importance.

Various Aspects of the Modern Curriculum

When events literally forced a re-evaluation of the goals of education, school entrance requirements (with their emphasis upon academic Latin and Greek) ceased to claim the role of ultimate arbiter of all questions of policy in curriculum construction for educators. A technological society could no longer afford the luxury of a wholly classical course of studies.¹ Now, according to Blair:

¹ Apropos of the school curriculum reflecting the conditions and ideals of its particular society, Douglass has written that: "Although critics are accustomed to charge the school with undue conservatism in matters affecting curriculum adjustment to current needs, it must be recognized that its aims or objectives reveal the felt needs of the time; its content in a large measure, the selected race experience which a given society holds most dear and desires to perpetuate in the

. . . the effective curriculum is one which: (1) makes provision for varying maturity and experience levels of pupils, (2) gears learning activities to the needs and goals of pupils, (3) provides projects, problems and units of experience which possess meaning and structure for the pupil, and (4) carefully selects and appraises projected pupil activities in terms of their transfer values and life situations. The questions might be raised as to whether a curriculum can do all these four things at once. I believe the answer is—yes. The highly enriched and flexible curriculum will provide an almost limitless array of possible activities and learning activities within certain broad areas. It should then be possible to select for a given pupil only those activities which satisfy these four criteria.²

Team-Work in Curriculum Design

The need for a broader perspective with respect to school curriculum design has brought about closer ties between curriculum specialists and guidance workers. Under existent circumstances the role of policy-maker in curriculum can not be left to any one person. The need for many and varied subjects makes cooperation among school personnel imperative. It follows then, that curriculum construction belongs to the school and community together, so policies should be reconciled with one another in a committee of equals. The doctrine of such collective responsibility for curriculum design is explicit in the circumstances which gave rise to the doctrine, namely, the needs of the individual in an industrial society.

In many schools such cooperation has already taken place. It has been suggested that at least one guidance worker be a member of the curriculum committee so that he may present the guidance point of view. The effect of cooperative effort between curriculum designers and guidance workers is still difficult to measure but if present indications are any criterion the future success of such cooperation is assured. Already cooperative efforts in curriculum design have produced many new and useful ideas. The recent developments in communication (e.g., the teaching of language and literature, etc.) which have been explored in recent texts, represent a program which but for guidance would have passed largely unnoticed, in fact, be more misunderstood than it already is.

Guidance workers, on their part, can not keep their area a "secret."

rearing of each succeeding generation." H. G. Douglass (Ed.), *The High School Curriculum* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947) pp. 3-4.

² G. M. Blair, "How Learning Theory is Related to Curriculum Organization," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 39 (1948), pp. 161-166.

They, too, have to join with others in drawing up and developing courses of study designed to meet the needs both of the students and of the community.

Investigations designed to discover principles of individual learning (due in great measure to the scientific movement in education) have indicated that learning is a unified process which does not take place as a result of "mental exercises" in so-called hard subjects (e.g., grammar, rhetoric, etc.) but comes about through experience with meaningful materials. It is these "meaningful materials" which form the basis of the guidance-inspired curriculum. Educators have discovered that even the proverbial three R's are assimilated more thoroughly when the learner is treated as a real person affected by every phase of the environment.³

The curriculum committee thus is seen as a cross-section of all phases of the school program. The guidance worker sitting down as an equal with others from school and community can provide a unique point of view as well as bring back to his own colleagues the points of view of the others involved. In this way the curriculum becomes a cooperative effort based upon mutual interests and understanding. No one course of study need be sacrificed or emphasized at the expense of others. Every area can in this way receive its equal share of interest and attention.

Curriculum and Individual Development. The objective today is to give the pupil a wide variety of experiences in the arts and sciences in the hope that such learning will enrich his outlook upon life. This new view represents tacit recognition of the fact that students should be permitted to grow and develop through unified experiences related to their actual needs. Information and skills of any kind are seldom remembered and carried over into other areas of living unless they personally affect the learner. Kelley expands the point as follows:

If guidance is to become effective in the lives of boys and girls it must be inherent in the teaching process, the learning experiences of pupils, and in all the learning laboratories of the school, including those of potential value in the community. Guidance, instruction, and curriculum need to become inseparable parts of the total educative process, and work hand in hand to meet the life problems of students and suggest meaningful solutions for them.⁴

³ See for example *Mental Health in Modern Education*, Fifty-Fourth Yearbook, NSSE (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955), Part II.

⁴ J. A. Kelley, *Guidance and Curriculum* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955), p. vii.

Many school systems are now trying to meet the problems of basic skills. The following is an excellent example of these efforts.

Purpose: That each person may grow in his ability to read, write, speak, and listen intelligently; and to understand and solve the numerical problems of everyday life.

The person who is achieving this objective acts, in accordance with his ability and experience, in such ways as these:

Basic Skills

1. Speaks and writes clearly and effectively.
2. Employs correct usage, correct spelling, legible penmanship.
3. Reads for information and enjoyment, selecting materials with discrimination.
4. Acquires ideas from the spoken and written language and develops the ability to see their relationships.
5. Checks information with facts.
6. Listens intelligently with growing discrimination.
7. Observes details and recognizes their meaning.
8. Understands the language of arithmetic.
9. Computes with accuracy and with reasonable speed.
10. Has an awareness of the use of numbers in everyday life.
11. Solves the numerical problems of everyday life.
12. Understands methods of checking computed results and uses these methods in checking problems.⁵

The Curriculum and the Classroom. The curriculum helps set the educational stage through which the individual comes into contact with the culture of his society. In the preparation and application of daily lesson plans, for instance, the teacher can include guidance principles and practices. Improvement of instruction leads to enhancement of the guidance program. There is indeed little point, even if this were possible, to make a guidance specialist out of the teacher. Improvement of teaching is, itself, improvement of what guidance services imply.

The optimum classroom may be defined as one which acts as a source of individual motivation. (Motivation depends on both the subject presented and the method of its presentation.) The scope and purpose of the curriculum together determine, in large measure, the educational development of the learner. It follows from this consideration that the curriculum needs to be designed along broad and purposeful lines. The learner, for example, should be provided with adequate criteria for indicating what progress he is making in his

⁵ *This Point of View*, Publication, Los Angeles Public School System, 1950, p. 21.

studies. Knowledge of progress is often in itself a factor motivating the pupil to further effort.

The Core-Curriculum

Guidance and the learning process have been steadily drawing closer. To facilitate this drawing together many schools have initiated the core-curriculum, or courses of study resting upon guidance principles. As commonly interpreted the core-curriculum (or core-course) refers to the organization and administration of teaching materials in terms of a broad integrated development of the individual. Harap explains it simply by defining the core-course as consisting of "the common elements which make up good living in a democracy The unit of work is a large on-going experience having a purpose which the pupils have accepted as their own."⁶

While the term core-curriculum is applied to a wide variety of courses or practices to be found at the present time in the school there are certain common elements found among them. The following elements are believed applicable to the generally accepted core-course: (1) subject-matter lines are crossed over by courses which are designed in accordance with broad general principles rather than with the teaching of any specific skills or information; (2) cooperative planning and teaching becomes a necessity because so many different subjects are fused together; (3) exploration of a wide range of relationships is involved, relationships not only of the different subjects but of the human values attached to them.

The core-curriculum properly planned and executed becomes a means whereby the teacher and pupils together explore on a broad level the problems which are of concern to all. From these explorations it is hoped there will arise a real understanding of: (*a*) the broad areas of human development and (*b*) the values inherent in our form of government. Rowe has summed up the philosophy of the core-program as follows:

We conceive the curriculum to be the child's *total school living*—all those experiences in which he participates under the guidance and direction of the school Our program is predicated on our belief in the individual differences of children. These individual differences are provocative of individual needs, and as we discover them we are attempting to adjust and

⁶ H. Harap, *Social Living in the Curriculum* (Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Field Services and Surveys, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952), p. 6.

adapt our program to meet them. This belief underlies the flexibility of our organization and is an integral part of the guidance concept which we hold.⁷

Wider Interpretation of Curriculum Building

On the broader horizons of our present-day knowledge of human behavior the curriculum is regarded as a way of facilitating pupil growth and development in terms of social and physical realities. This wider interpretation of the school curriculum does not, however, imply lack of study or proficiency in basic subjects. Adequate skill in reading, writing, and arithmetic are still essential in the preparation of the pupil to meet the many problems which lie ahead. Recently complaints have been heard about the lack of reading comprehension or spelling skill of the modern high school graduate. It is realized now that these subjects are definitely needed but that they should not be taught as ends-in-themselves. "For curriculum to be a vital force in the lives of pupils," writes Kelley, "teachers and counselors need to provide a rich variety of activities of all kinds for pupils to explore and develop their personal, vocational, and cultural interests."⁸ In this way, then, the student will come to directly understand the intent and relationship of what is being taught him.

The Problem of Communication

Man, once wrote Aristotle, is by nature a "social animal." The wisdom of this ancient statement is illuminated in every phase of modern living. Human survival is today largely a question of fitness for living in social groups. Man can no longer survive—if he ever did—apart from the group. Few people would now dispute the old chieftain's observation that the good man is "he who keeps the tribe alive."

To concede that life is conducted on a group level does not necessarily solve the problems of such living. The Atomic Age literally trembles between "fruitfulness and fearfulness" because of the unsolved problems of group existence. One of the most thorny and basic of these problems is that of reaching areas of agreement between people, i.e., of communicating with one another.

⁷ D. M. Rowe, *A Core Program Grows* (Bel Air, Maryland: Board of Education of Harford County, 1949), pp. 3-4.

⁸ J. A. Kelley, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

Communication has been defined as a process, *between two or more people, which makes common to those involved information or "qualities" (of things no longer tangible or concrete)*. In short, to communicate is to share with others that which is in one's own domain of ideas. Thus information about Latin American exports, for example, can be communicated by one person to another along with certain "attitudes" about this area in general. When effective communication is taking place both parties understand each other and the meanings attached to that which is being expressed.

However, the inherent flexibility of language militates against clarity in communicating with one another. Add to this obstacle the divergent frames of reference of different disciplines (e.g., science, philosophy, etc.) and the problem is evident. Furthermore, each human tends to see the world around him as a reflection of his own unique self. The same term has different meanings to each individual. There are those, even, who assert, in view of these conditions, that genuine communication between people is not possible.

Be that as it may, for practical purposes people do succeed in communicating with one another, even if not completely. The drill sergeant appears to have no trouble conveying his instructions to the new recruit. And the success in communicating his commands is even more surprising in view of the terse language used by the military.

Language and Communication in the Classroom. Today's citizen not only must attain proficiency in the use of language but also is faced with the problem of comprehending the mass media of communication. The things heard and watched and read influence the behavior of the citizen. A faulty introduction to language may prove of inestimable harm later on. Pupils have to realize not only that words are symbols representing different objects but also that these symbols have a practical use. Those who would teach the young must first themselves understand the problems inherent in communication. Dale writes that, "every teacher . . . who wants to make his voice count in increasing excellence in the mass media must do so on the basis of a realistic understanding of the communication process as it operates in the modern mass media."⁹

It is not outside the realm of good teaching to make certain that the student becomes aware of the more accepted meanings of the terms he

⁹E. Dale, "Teaching Discrimination in Motion Pictures," *Mass Media and Education*, Fifty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954), p. 259.

uses in his daily living. The symbol, *etc.*, for example, should be explained to the student because so many times it may be confusing. *Et cetera*, the Latin phrase which *etc.* represents, is an indication that something more than was originally set down in the context is implied. Whenever necessary the *et cetera* should be expanded. In much the same way the use of quotation marks and the hyphen must be carefully explained. Symbols are tools of language, not a means for omitting necessary information. In one sense these grammatical symbols are "safety" devices available when rigidity of expression is to be avoided.

The considered use of language is held by many authorities to be a means whereby a sense of freedom from tension (such as that associated with worry and anxiety) is made possible. Furthermore, such usage can, and does, help bring about what is referred to as "optional tonicity" or effective preparation for work. Hayakawa¹⁰ has evolved a comprehensive logic of the principles of general semantics and the way in which these principles may be used in the classroom situation. It is Hayakawa's thesis that words are but token expressions of the meanings behind them. Furthermore, a child will not be impressed with words he cannot understand; rather it is the meanings which he associates with words that are important to him.^{*} Coal and cellars, for example, have little meaning for children in Florida or in Southern California. On the other hand date or palm trees used as mere terms will leave the child who lives in colder climates practically unaffected. Words must be made meaningful in terms the child appreciates and can understand.

Semantics. The history of language and of human relations generally is covered by the general term semantics. As commonly accepted (Greek derivation, *semantikos*) semantics is the discipline which treats of the meaning and purpose of words. Every social group has, it is obvious, its own semantic problems, a condition which makes communication between peoples speaking a different language so difficult. It has often been said that the idiom of one language can not be translated over into another. Be that as it may, the exploration of the meaning and purpose of words presents one of the major challenges to the guidance worker.

In the classroom, semantics is tied in with such tool-subjects as grammar, spelling, reading, and the like. The importance of seman-

¹⁰ S. I. Hayakawa, *Language in Action* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1943).

tics in personality development is pointed up by Johnson,¹¹ who maintains that the child is enveloped by "verbal cocoons" which deeply color his behavior. These cocoons are evident in the child's responses to the schoolroom environment. In a sense they act as criteria for that which is presented to him. The terms assimilated in the home, for example, many times handicap learning inasmuch as these terms are accepted unquestioningly by the child. The teacher therefore may be using the same words as are her pupils but she is not communicating with those who already have preconceived notions of these same words.

Instruction is thus shot through with the problems of semantics. Teachers who have been careful about establishing "common meanings" in the classroom have accomplished much in such widely separated areas as foreign languages¹² and physics.¹³ Even in the teaching of our own English language, an understanding of semantics has proved of value in literary appreciation, composition, vocabulary building, reading comprehension, and the like areas.¹⁴ In the discussion which follows, the school subjects that represent the substance of most modern curriculums are presented from the standpoint of their implications for guidance.

Teaching of English

Our American culture, in which the individual is reared, gives him certain unique symbols, certain verbal forms, as it were, for handling the problems which confront him. How else could one be able to communicate with others in our society if it were not for the existence of such commonly held symbols?

An individual deprived of these symbols—the "access" to the artifacts and values of his culture—will find many difficulties in his own adjustment. Personality disorders are many times due to inability to communicate with others because of language difficulties. "For-

¹¹ W. Johnson, *People in Quandaries* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946). Especially Chap. I.

¹² S. H. Eoff and W. E. Bull, "Semantic Approach to the Teaching of Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 32 (1948), pp. 3-13.

¹³ F. L. Werwiebe, "Applying General Semantics in Physics Courses," in *Papers . . . American Congress for General Semantics* (Chicago: Institute of General Semantics, 1943), pp. 469-472.

¹⁴ C. I. Glicksberg, "The Educational Implications of Semantics," *School Review*, Vol. 49 (1941), pp. 744-753.

eigners" in our country have often encountered suspicion and mistrust merely because they were unable to speak or to understand English as it is used here.

Guidance in our schools bears a decided responsibility for the development and refinement of the means of inter-personal exchange, i.e., the English language, unique idioms and all. Improvement of English usage in all areas has helped to make more harmonious inter-personal relationships. Such harmony has become indispensable in a society made immeasurably smaller by mass media of transportation. Modern means of communication make immediately available news of happenings in foreign countries which once took months, even years, to reach the general public. In view of this, the teaching of foreign languages needs to be encouraged. To understand our neighbor's ways we must first be able to understand him. Such understanding comes first through a language common to both.

Effective use of English in all areas (reading, writing, and speaking) is connected with personality development in many ways. Inability of the individual to communicate with others leaves him outside the group. Such lack of identification, particularly during adolescence, can cause definite emotional problems. Young people need to express themselves and to understand others in order to develop normally.

The Function of Speech. Mass media of communication, especially television and radio, have amply demonstrated how primary is the role of the *spoken* word in our society. Fluent expression holds an important role in the inter-personal relationships of every pupil. Sharing the friendships and aspirations of one's fellows is necessary for a broadened outlook. It certainly may be said that "no man is an island unto himself." We all share the need to communicate with one another.

Speech is the primary means by which such communication is possible. Silence may be golden but the world has more often been moved by the orator than by the uncommunicative person. The individual who can not or will not express himself adequately misses the values of friendship and regard for one another, which are the bases of the adjusted social group. This does not mean that one must be gossiping or talking idly all the time. It means, rather, that the spoken word is essential in the understanding of one's associates and friends.

Without speech the very process of counseling would become impossible. The counselee, it is true, may be able to write about himself, but it is upon his talking that the counselor bases most of his judg-

ments. The transmission of information, hopes, and feelings would be immeasurably slowed down if speech were made impossible. Outside of counseling, think for a moment on how much of our life's enjoyment depends on talking to others and sharing with them through this talking our own ideas and values.

Fluency of speech can do much towards helping the pupil adjust in the classroom. Of the different "speech arts" the play appears to have great possibilities as a guidance technique in personality development. Many schools have strong drama departments—and speech courses in drama—activities which have done much to enhance the curriculum.

The *creative* drama, one which is written and acted by pupils, themselves, is a striking example of the effect that play-acting can have upon personality development. Whereas in the written drama one has to learn an already finished role, in the creative play there exist opportunities for identifying oneself with desired characters. For the pupil to identify himself with a wished-for personality not only gives the teacher more insight into the pupil's problems, it also helps in the release of frustration on the part of the pupil as well as in the promotion of group morale in general. Acting when properly organized and motivated helps in providing personal satisfaction, creative "projection," and a release from tension.

Care, however, needs to be exercised in guiding "emotionally induced" behavior such as that manifested in play-acting. Sometimes students identify themselves too closely with the roles they play and thereby tend to lose touch with reality. Students must be shown that while play-acting is an excellent means of oral expression it is no substitute for reality.

There is little difference, however, between the finished and the creative play with respect to their guidance value. Through such activities pupils can arrive at an understanding of "role-taking"¹⁵ so vital in a society which expects a person to be many things. As he grows older the pupil will have to play different roles at work, at home, in social intercourse, etc. Early practice at role-playing helps

¹⁵ Role-taking has been defined as "living out . . . a social behavior organization, whether as play, as social imitation, or as one's real-life situation. In real-life situations, role-taking means earnestly behaving as, and therefore actually being, a particular social person in relation to other persons. It also includes overtly or covertly acting as, *without* being, a particular social person, and by so doing getting hold of the social attitudes and the perspectives of that other social person Acquiring role-taking functions is, for the child, simply a result of his learning in particular situations with their contexts what he can, may, or must do, and gaining skill in doing it through practice." N. Cameron, *The Psychology of Behavior Disorders* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947), pp. 90-91.

afford insight into human relationships. The problems of a given play may often reflect the problems met in the home and in inter-personal relationships. Acting out a meaningful part in a play can afford the insecure child a chance to express himself and through this expression become more acceptable to his peers. By the same token, an aggressive pupil is able to find satisfying emotional release in this way.

One teacher¹⁶ has written about the results of an unusual project (creative play) with children, a project which included the re-enactment of King Arthur's restoration of peace in ancient Britain. The children involved had already been adjudged as being "backward" in academic achievement. They ranged in age from eight to twelve years and from feeble-minded to superior status in intelligence. With respect to the direct effect upon these children of engaging in spontaneous play the author is enthusiastic in her belief that such play is of help in influencing personality development. She writes as follows, "If nothing more had been achieved than that change of heart to which every act, every word, and every cheery face of these boys bore constant witness, the work of the year would have been largely justified. This new attitude toward school life and school work was the fundamental preliminary to any progress whatsoever."¹⁷

Further, according to this same teacher the children in her classroom, as a result of their new attitudes, became more punctual in attendance and better behaved in general. It hardly needs emphasizing in any case that an individual can not be coerced, or even persuaded, into effective learning unless some method is first found of creating in him an active desire for such learning.

Composition and Creative Writing. In no other like area of verbalization, perhaps, does there exist stronger possibilities for personality development than in expressing oneself in written form. The individual who is encouraged to put his ideas about people "down on paper" is enabled thereby to feel a kinship, an empathy, as it were, with those human beings about whom he is writing. In drama construction, for example, he has an opportunity for "identifying" himself with each one of his characters and through such identification for living through them his own inner conflicts and problems. The writer thus makes explicit (through those of whom he writes) that which is implicit (i.e., repressed desires and ambitions).

Composing stories permits a release of tension since it gives the

¹⁶ E. Taylor, *Experiments with a Backward Class* (London: Methuen & Co., 1947).

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 71.

individual wide scope for expression. What an emotionally disturbed individual might not disclose even to the most adroit counselor he often reveals in writing about characterizations he believes no one would recognize.

The emotional release provided by written composition can be illustrated in the use with an emotionally upset child of such a device as, "You feel very angry over being hit by B— on the playground during recess. Would you like to write about it (or talk about it, paint it, or model it in clay) and then we can all review together the points you make in your writing."

An additional advantage to "writing out feelings" is that such a procedure many times is a socially acceptable way of expressing such feelings. A child may find release from tension through writing about hostility toward a brother or sister, resentment over parental domination, or a desire for some athletic equipment. This technique of writing out one's feelings has become a valuable aid in diagnostic procedure in many child-guidance clinics. Because such a method requires only a moderate amount of data concerning projective methods and their interpretation, it may also be employed usefully by teachers.

Another useful means of assisting pupils not only in recognizing but also in taking constructive steps toward a solution of their personal problems is that of having them write their own autobiographies. The assignment of emotionally charged topics such as "If I could talk back to my father," can do much in giving the pupil the necessary insight into his own problems. Although emotion is closely interrelated with reason some situations may be theoretically characterized as either "emotional" or "intellectual." Much can be done towards helping to balance emotion and reason through the use of such techniques as creative writing. The advantages for personality adjustment of creative writing have been characterized as: (1) the inclusion of those opportunities which help the pupil towards greater understanding of the dynamics of behavior; (2) the release of emotional tension; (3) the more mature appreciation of what influences "characters"; and (4) the personal enjoyment which arises from one's own efforts to create literature.

Reading for Understanding. Despite the enormous inroads of other means of communication (television, radio, etc.) reading still remains a primary tool for understanding the world about us. The literature of the ages is still most effectively approached through intelligent reading. In the classroom, as elsewhere, reading materials should be selected not only for the kind of literature they represent but also for

the kind of contribution they can make to the student's appreciation of them. According to Strang and others the selection of reading materials for the student must be guided by the following considerations: "What kind of picture do they give of the world? . . . What assistance do these materials offer to the student in the solution of his immediate problems? Are they extending his present interests? Are they leading him to new interests? Is he being exposed to enough different styles so that he is gradually becoming conscious of the elements that create good literature?"¹⁸

Teachers of reading and literature are becoming more interested in their areas as a means of promoting the development of the mature personality. Quite often children hampered because of reading difficulties display marked emotional instability. In accordance with this reasoning a judge of the Children's Court in New York City has suggested the use of bibliotherapy in the case of delinquent children as a way of favorably influencing their emotional life.¹⁹ This same judge has reported a lower incidence of hostile behavior among those helped by the judicious use of reading than among those who were not.

The enjoyment of reading as a worthwhile pursuit in itself has found many advocates in education. Reading not only provides an "escape" which is conducive to emotional balance but it provides a basis for improved relationships with other people. "Reading maketh a full man" as the saying goes and because of this is an unparalleled aid in understanding the issues of current times as well as of the past. The feeling of being ready to discourse upon many subjects can do wonders for one's self-confidence.

The Social Studies

Whether the social disciplines (i.e., history, geography, civics, etc.) are to be treated as arts or sciences remains a controversial subject. What is clear enough, however, is that in the school these areas are the logical avenue to an understanding of the cultural scene for the pupil.

Identification with his parents is the first socializing process of the child. The next is that of joining with his group in mutual endeavors.

¹⁸ R. Strang, C. M. McCullough, and A. E. Traxler, *Problems in the Improvement of Reading* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955), p. 150.

¹⁹ J. Panken, "Psychotherapeutic Value of Books in the Treatment and Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency," *American Journal of Psychotherapy*, Vol. 1 (1947), pp. 71-86.

The social studies are a means for exploring and classifying knowledge about these individual and social inter-relationships. Intellectual (as well as emotional) acceptance of responsibility is made possible through study in the areas which cover the various manifestations of individual and group behavior. The pupil needs to know, for example, how climate and topography make the Tahitian's life differ from that of the Eskimo. The environment shapes our lives in many ways and none of us can afford to be in constant conflict with the forces around him.

The dynamic functions of the different social studies courses in the classroom are evidenced in: (1) the development of kinship (empathy) with one's fellows; (2) the acquisition of insight into the complexities of inter-personal relationships; and (3) the building-up of adequate understanding of himself and of his group on the part of every individual. When the pupil begins to learn about and fully appreciate the problems inherent in group living he comes to understand himself more clearly. It has become increasingly apparent that the kind of awareness which is contributed by effective instruction in the social studies is also the kind which contributes to a balanced outlook concerning our neighbors.

The Problems of Social Behavior. The view that the forces of society (social restraints) may inhibit individual development is rapidly coming into focus. The social studies teacher, by virtue of his interests and training, should be equipped to handle this whole issue of social restraints more effectively than other school personnel. In a sense, the entire system of law and order acts as a restraint upon individual behavior. "Conformity" brings up many problems for the individual to surmount.²⁰ The problem for the social studies teacher is to show clearly why there must be a balance between individual impulses and desires and the behavior demanded of the group.

Democratic government rests upon a broad foundation of acceptable behavior. All of us as individuals have certain drives, certain predispositions to behave, which come into conflict with the interests of the group. The child must be shown why he can not have all the playing equipment during recreation period. The high school boy must realize that his "hot rod" can endanger the lives of many others on the highways.

The effective social studies teacher can do much in the way of en-

²⁰ P. M. Symonds, *The Dynamics of Human Adjustment* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1946).

abling his students to grasp the essentials of both individual and social behavior and of relating these essentials to the students' problems in active and participating terms. He has for his material all kinds of examples, such as industrial development, political movements, social problems, and the like patterns of group and individual behavior.

The Problem of Prejudice. So much has been written about prejudice that the subject has tended to become confusing. Prejudice is, however, a primary problem in human behavior the implications of which need to be explored in every classroom. Dislike of another human or group has led to grievous consequences with respect to personality development. The major causes of prejudice have been found in such emotionally oriented behavior as imitation (introjection), incorrect association of ideas, and displaced hostility.²¹ The social studies teacher's responsibility lies in aiding his pupils to find a solution to the problem of prejudice, as well as in understanding the psychological "defenses" which produce it in the first place. The procedures offered to help students in this matter of prejudice include a reasoned acceptance of the fact of strong feelings; provisions for talking it out; writing about it; drawing or acting out hostilities in a permissive atmosphere; and finally the substitution of more desirable outlets for hostility in the form of socially acceptable attacks on poverty, crime, corruption, etc.

Whatever the specific examples of human conflict may be, the social studies teacher must emphasize the need for understanding and exploring the dynamics of social inter-relationships. The acceptance of these inter-relationships is a working basis for procedure in teaching the student a desirable approach to the problems of insecurity, hostility, etc. The enlightened human comes to understand the problems of prejudice, which have done so much to set back social advancement. As Masserman has said, "Prejudice represents antagonisms which spring from deep-seated and phantasy-ridden fears that alien minority, religious, racial and political groups threaten the personal well-being of the prejudiced individual."²² This author along with many others sees the diffusion of knowledge through the social disciplines as one effective means for the dispersion of prejudice.

²¹ Dorothy W. Baruch, *The Glass House of Prejudice* (New York: William Morrow & Co., 1946), pp. 125-127.

For an academic interpretation of prejudice see Eugene Hartley, *Problems in Prejudice* (New York: King's Crown Press, 1946).

²² H. Masserman, *Principles of Dynamic Psychiatry* (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1946), p. 224.

Art and Music Instruction

Art for both appreciation and consumer experience is the goal of the present art-education program. The program is designed to introduce students to several aspects of art. Students go out from the school either into their own homes or into further study better equipped by virtue of their contact with art experiences. Art training provides a broad experience in living and dealing with art forms.

Youth's contribution to the home during their school years now includes paintings, drawings, prints, sculpture. In addition, if they are interested in crafts they may bring home printed and woven fabrics, mosaic tables, ceramics, jewelry, leather and metal work, and even interior decoration.

Today's students will be called upon to play many roles in life as parents, wage-earners, participants in community affairs, etc. They will often need to make decisions that require aesthetic judgment, in which their art experiences will be needed. This makes obvious the value of adequate instruction in art, in all of its many forms.

Again, it is the opinion of writers on the subject that art as exemplified in painting, sculpture, and the like expressions provides a method for diagnosing maladjustment. Children's drawings for example reveal such maladjustments as fear, anxiety, hostility, and the like.²³

In art the individual's psychological needs and his creative product are closely related. As Lowenfeld writes, "the individual . . . uses his media and his form of expression according to his personal experiences. Since these experiences change with the growth of the individual, self-identification is a dynamic science. It embraces the understanding of *social, intellectual, emotional and psychological changes* with the *creative needs* of the child."²⁴

To recognize the individual's problems through the various avenues of self-expression is part of effective art instruction. Art can serve as a source of motivation in the classroom because of the need for individual expression. Through artistic creation in one form or another the individual can lessen some of the tensions which tend to upset him. Such effort (personal creativity) on the part of the individual provides an opportunity for diagnosing his behavior. Knowledge of

²³ W. Wolf, *Personality of the Preschool Child* (New York: Grune and Stratton, 1946).

²⁴ V. Lowenfeld, *Creative and Mental Growth* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1952), p. 9.

the causes of maladjustment is made possible through analysis of the art forms through which the individual reveals himself.

Music. William Congreve (1670-1729), the great English dramatist, first gave voice to the view that "Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast." Whether or not such inspired lines overstate the actual case, few now deny the therapeutic value which music possesses. The marked influence of music on emotional behavior has been demonstrated by more than one investigator. There is little doubt that many animals seem to respond to music, that is, if their behavior is a criterion. Squirrels have reacted to whistling, sheep to the sounds of a flute, elephants to pronounced rhythms, and "musical" dogs are not uncommon phenomena.²⁵ Music has been observed as having calming, irritating, or stimulating effects upon animals and is often used in connection with their training.

In its relation to human beings, music has been called the "medicine of the mind" for many years and has been extensively employed in institutions for the mentally ill.²⁶ The inclusion of music in the curriculum needs no justification at this point. Writers are generally in accord with respect to the value of music. To quote from a leader in the field:

Music is not a body of knowledge to be acquired through study, it is not a technique to be mastered through practice; nor is it an aggregation of facts to be memorized. To be sure, such factors may enter at some time into a loving pursuit of this art, but *Music* is the experience of the race objectified in permanent form for the enhancement of life and for the elevation of human thought. It is to be loved for its beauty, sought for its charm, lived with for its delightful companionship, and served because it inspires devotion.²⁷

The literature of music education may differ in emphasis but it does indicate for guidance a common acceptance of major objectives. Summed up for guidance, music education helps students to: (1) develop an understanding and appreciation of the different areas of music; (2) sing, play, or listen according to their individual interests and musical capabilities; (3) build up a mature understanding of the aesthetic values of music in terms of social goals.

²⁵ C. M. Diserens, *The Influence of Music on Behavior* (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1926).

²⁶ W. Van de Wall, *Utilization of Music in Prisons and Mental Hospitals* (New York: National Bureau for the Advancement of Music, 1924).

²⁷ L. B. Pitts, "The Place of Music in a System of Education," *Music Education*, Thirty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1936), p. 18.

Science

Science can no longer remain an alien or a hostile world to any of us in view of its major role in our survival. Furthermore very few other areas of human endeavor have had so great an influence on the course of history. It is most important, then, for the preservation of our society that the young come to understand and appreciate the content and goals of science. The outlook of the young towards their environment and towards the universe is the central factor in their adjustment. The teaching of science to facilitate this adjustment has been mandatory in these troubled times.

Science in education, i.e., mathematics, physics, biology, etc., should be so presented in the classroom that the student is not bewildered by an array of seemingly unrelated facts. Instead, instruction must involve interpretation of the relationships and the meaning of the facts which are being presented. This will call for explanation and analysis of content matter as well as skillful methods of teaching.

Science instruction can and should be directed towards the development of desirable patterns of behavior. The concepts of science will present an enormous challenge to scientists for years to come. But it is possible to help the child adjust to the concepts which undergird modern science, i.e., space, time, energy, inter-relationships, and the like. Actually it has now become necessary to do so.

Instruction in science depends upon a proper outlook upon science. Discoveries and inventions which have resulted from research or "frontier thinking" can be fitted into the curriculum in terms of student understanding. In this way the events of contemporary progress are more clearly illuminated. Thus while the atomic-powered reactor may soon supplant the steam turbine the concept of energy remains the same. It is such concepts which make possible science instruction from age level to age level if the contemporary scientific progress is more clearly defined. An invention or discovery may have much in common with the larger pattern. For instance power generated by coal may give way to atomic-powered reactors but the larger pattern of energy is likely to be important for many generations to come. It is these patterns which form the basic conceptions for instruction through the ages. All of us are now confronted with the problems of science and not only the scientist. The young need to learn how to handle and to experiment intelligently with the forces and materials of the universe. Science considered as the ceaseless effort of man to adapt himself to an environment, quite often hostile to his purposes,

holds a more profound meaning than mere vocational competence. Science is the result of man's cultural experiences and represents untold toil and suffering.

The answers to scientific problems need to come from every area of curriculum, not just the courses marked science. The student must be provided with those facts of science that help him make sense out of his physical world. Without experiences that lead to such understanding the child's outlook upon life is threatened and he comes to feel insecure. Experimenting with plants, making paper and cloth, building a cabinet, visiting a bakery are activities which open the world to the child and which make him feel more secure in it.

Science can help allay anxiety and contribute to the wholesome growth and development of the child by relating his experiences to every curricular area. Added meaning to a social studies unit on geography can be given through a science study of rock formation. Safety rules on the playground are shown to be logical and functional through a study of friction and balance. In many such ways science can help give the child a framework of concepts with which he can understand and feel secure in the world. All this can be accomplished without minimizing or violating the accepted facts and concepts of science. What is required is a point of view, an orientation, that helps bring the science curriculum into closer relationship with the child's growth and development.

Industrial Arts

The new interest in industrial or vocational arts, as they have been called, is an aspect of growing concern for the future welfare of the individual. Leaders in industry have come to the conclusion that it pays dividends to have properly placed, well-adjusted people. Education accordingly is taking over some of the responsibility for pre-employment guidance, since it has been found that personality factors in job placement are many times of more significance than technical proficiency alone. The mastery of a given job can usually be effected in from a few hours to a few weeks. The problem of the equally necessary social skill is not this easily solved. The more adequately the individual is guided while he is still sufficiently young and flexible to make the necessary social adjustments, the less likelihood there appears to be of his becoming a vocational misfit.

Industrial arts have now taken their place as an integral phase of general education. The teaching of these arts is centered in fa-

miliarizing students with "the tools, products and processes" of the technological world with which they shall have to cope. The field of industrial arts "... is considered a part of general education, not only because it supports or fulfills many of the fundamental concepts of general education, but because it develops greater understandings of the significance of industry in the world today."²⁸ And since industry is so vital a part of all our living the teaching of industrial arts must be oriented in terms of future employment possibilities.

Physical Education

Physical education was one of the first areas with implications for personality development admitted to the traditional school and college curriculum. The first gymnasium classes, however, were as stereotyped as any routine academic subject and the gymnastics (first imported from Sweden) often required of pupils were as uninspiring as the multiplication tables to be learned by rote. It is small wonder that the young have rebelled against the very activities designed to act both as a release from classroom inactivity and as an aid in developing physical fitness and health.

However in many areas physical education and health activities have now been enriched to the point where they are among the foremost contributors to personality development in the curriculum. The play period, for example, helps in relaxation and the release of tension, while organized games offer an opportunity for developing cooperation and team play. Intra-mural sports have helped make possible a wider socialization in terms of the community culture. In some cases, even, an individual's difficulties may be diagnosed and a solution suggested in the physical education period.²⁹

With younger children, applications of "play therapy" can be made in the supervised play period. The possible contributions to proper development of this procedure are undoubtedly considerable. As in play-acting such a procedure calls for a situation in which the child may live his fantasies, and even release pent-up hostility, without fear of experiencing guilt or rejection. Many guidance techniques, in fact, are based upon the prevention of the kind of maladjustment caused by guilt or rejection. The "permissiveness" of the play period lays the

²⁸ J. W. Giachino and R. O. Gallington, *Course Instruction in Industrial Arts and Vocational Education* (Chicago: American Technical Society, 1954), p. 13.

²⁹ Dorothy LaSalle, *Guidance of Children through Physical Education* (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1946).

groundwork for diagnostic procedures. Children need to relax in order to unburden themselves of those fears and anxieties which trouble them. This relaxation is afforded by the play period, a period which is so welcome to the student restricted by the normal academic routine.

The Ideal Curriculum

An ideal curriculum geared to meet the widest possible demands would be in design as follows:

1. A curriculum made broad enough to cover the greatest number of individual needs.
2. A curriculum designed to be flexible enough to meet changing times and conditions.
3. A curriculum adjusted to the needs of the community as well as of the pupil in the school.
4. A curriculum which calls forth the best contributions of all those involved (e.g., pupil, teacher, etc.).
5. A curriculum based upon the latest and most adequate information available academically, vocationally, and otherwise.
6. A curriculum which fosters on-the-job training as well as close integration with future places of employment.
7. A curriculum which encourages "making and doing" but also does not neglect the fundamental skills and information.
8. A curriculum which promotes such characteristics as initiative, thrift, industry, etc.
9. A curriculum based upon the democratic philosophy practiced in the classroom.

Summary

Curricula are the media through which the purposes of guidance (and of education) are expressed. They serve as the direct expression of the school's philosophy. Through the curriculum the values of society are brought directly to the child and he thus begins early in life to assimilate those values which his society holds desirable.

Many school curriculums still labor under the handicap of excessive formality. The child thus becomes burdened at the outset with subjects which do more to restrict than develop his personality. The curriculum should be so designed that it provides the child with

maximum opportunity for personal growth and development. It is important to teach the child to learn the facts of his culture; it is no less important, however, that he be placed in an environment wherein there is room to grow and realize his potentialities.

The school must be viewed as more than a mere repository of information. Through the proper curriculum it must enrich the child's experiences with daily activities designed to provide him with a broader understanding of his world. As useful knowledge grows so will the child's appreciation of his cultural heritage. It is necessary that curricula be geared so as to further this fuller appreciation on the part of the child. The school can no longer afford to ignore the educational aspects related to personality development in favor of those which are academically geared. Neither aspect of curriculum designing needs to be ignored. The three R's can be assimilated within the context of a curriculum which provides for the widest possible enhancement of learning.

In view of the child's spontaneous curiosity, it should not be too difficult to enable him to discover the values which are to be derived from an understanding of the natural phenomena of the universe. Education can by means of a well-balanced curriculum provide an outlook toward the environment necessary to optimum growth of the student. The school possesses an unrivaled opportunity for contributing to the enrichment of individual experiences. Every child benefits from a curriculum which recognizes his worth as an individual who has something unique to contribute to his society.

Suggested Problems

1. Talk to a few recent high school graduates and find out if there are any courses which they wish they had taken to help them in their present work or school situation. Find out if these courses are offered in the local high school and if not numerate all the possible reasons why they are not included in the curriculum.
2. What are some factors which cause lack of communication between teacher and student in the classroom situation?
3. If you are teaching or observing in a school, find out how guidance workers are able to influence the curriculum either directly (through administrative channels, as members of curriculum committees, etc.) or indirectly.
4. What are some advantages of the core curriculum in the junior high school?

5. Can you think of any possibilities for the use of creative drama in a subject which you teach or plan to teach? What guidance practices might be effected by such a project?

6. Is there a place in the school for courses which emphasize social adjustment? Explain your answer.

7. In what way do mathematics and science help a person to achieve optimum development.

Suggested Readings

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See also the references cited in the footnotes.

Chapter 9

Guidance in the Learning Process

Education is now regarded as the total process of growth and development. Education is learning in its fullest sense and any distinction between the two is now considered arbitrary. For purposes of analysis, however, "Learning . . . can be regarded as *the total changes which occur to an individual as a result of his responses to representative stimuli, present or past.*"¹ Education is the larger program whereby the individual is guided into the culture of his society. Learning is construed as the particular means whereby this direction takes place. Education is concerned with learning as it relates to its general purposes. These purposes include having pupil, teacher, and school united in an effort to guide the future citizen according to the standards of his society.

Concerns of Guidance

The school is the *formal* agency of the community, an agency which receives its direction from the members of the community. Furthermore, every child who passes through the school gates already has been subjected to the molding influences of his home and family. The

¹ L. P. Thorpe and A. M. Schmuller, *Contemporary Theories of Learning* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954), p. 8.

impact of these and other cultural influences in the child's education is of primary significance to the school. Guidance, too, must be directly concerned with the aims and forces within society that affect learning. No longer is the student considered as learning in two phases, namely "mental" and "physical"; instead learning is viewed as a process which challenges the individual as a "whole person."

In today's classrooms there are to be found programs wherein children can paint, work in clay, or express themselves in music and dramatic play. But these activities can not be given without reference to human growth and development.

In the guidance program, the pupil is educated not only as an individual but also as a member of a particular society. The hope today is that experiences in school and elsewhere will help bring out the values of democratic life. Through a varied program of study and play, the participants can learn to conform to group standards, to be mutually helpful and respectful to one another. Learning through personal experiences has already established its validity in many instances.

It would appear that pupils whose teachers understand how learning takes place and give systematic attention to directing it would have a chance to attain a higher level of achievement than those pupils who lack these advantages. The guidance of learning experiences pre-supposes a comprehension on the part of guidance personnel of the fundamental aspects of learning. This applies both to individual counseling and group guidance.

The following comprehensive case record illustrates the involved learning and guidance problems facing a teacher as she attempts to help a pupil in his development. It was written by a classroom teacher.

CASE RECORD OF SPENCER

Spencer, age 11 years and 1 month, is in Miss Johnson's fifth grade. In appearance he is average in height, very slender and untidy in his personal grooming. Although he has many clothes of good quality, he wears them in a sloppy manner and is abusive with them. He has a shock of thick brown hair which is never combed and rarely cut. He has alert brown eyes and a clear olive complexion. His upper front teeth protrude somewhat and are in need of cleaning. His hands are small and slender; and the nails that are not chewed off are always dirty.

Problem. Spencer's appearance, his aggressive behavior, his retardation in reading and other school subjects immediately challenged Miss Johnson, and following are some of the data she found.

Home. Spencer lives in a good average house on a street where prac-

tically all the houses are owned by the residents. There are several children of his same age in the neighborhood. They have a piano, radio and television set. He has a bicycle, and has had many different pets. Now has a cat he is very fond of. Spencer's father was in the service when Spencer entered kindergarten, but was discharged shortly after that time. He worked for an appliance firm for about a year and then established his own appliance business. His investment was limited, and the first two years were rather difficult financially, but he now seems to be doing very well. He is an easy going man, fond of the children and genuinely interested in the welfare of the family. He has been so preoccupied with his business, that he has in most cases left all matters concerning the children such as discipline, school visits or conferences etc. to the mother. Spencer's mother is a very vivacious and dynamic personality. She is of Italian origin, very excitable and talks incessantly. She is very striking in appearance and meets people with ease and assurance. She is strict and over indulgent with the children by turn, but believes one should be strict with Spencer.

Spencer has one brother five years older than he is. He is good to Spencer in some ways, but is rough with him. Spencer likes to go play football with the older boys, even though he admits he always gets hurt. His brother attempts to help Spencer with arithmetic and spelling, but lacks understanding and patience for such a task. Spencer has one sister eight years older than he is. A beautiful and talented girl whom Spencer admires very much. He seems to feel that she loves him and thinks he is a cute little brother, but doesn't have much time for him.

Health. Spencer had a tonsil and adenoid operation at the age of three. Had a skull fracture at the age of four. At this time he was under the care of a pediatrician. Skull fracture was slight and apparently there were no complications. No history of dizziness, headaches, unconsciousness etc. Pediatrician prescribed rest, and cautioned mother not to excite or frustrate him in any way. Mother feels that the ensuing babying "spoiled" him to the extent that he became unwilling to do anything for himself. Boy's feet were badly scalded in a kitchen accident at the age of five. Mother carried him about the house for several weeks to keep him from crying.

School nurse made a home visit during his second grade and recommended that child be placed on a high-vitamin, high-caloric diet and that his rest schedule be carefully maintained. Mother seemed willing to cooperate, but is inconsistent in everything she does. Spencer has never gone to bed early enough to get adequate rest.

Spencer was fitted with glasses when he was eight years old. The following comment regarding his vision was made on the cumulative record by the second grade teacher at this time. "Serious eye condition. Does not focus or see correctly. Must be taught to do so with glasses and exercises." The third grade teacher made this comment "Has difficulty with glasses. Says he sees better without them." Fourth grade teacher commented "He *should* wear his glasses." At the beginning of fifth grade, mother reported that she had taken Spencer to another eye specialist who had found nothing wrong with his vision.

Spencer does not eat an adequate breakfast, but goes to cafeteria for a mid morning lunch. He goes home for lunch, but mother is seldom there, since she helps in the father's business, and she believes Spencer is capable of preparing his own lunch.

Outside activities. Spencer belonged to a Cub Scout group for a few months. He was excluded because no den mother could cope with his aggressive ways. He has no close friends of his own age, and either rides around on his bicycle after school, or tags along after his older brother. He does not go to Sunday School, and does not attend the classes in religious education on released time. (Ninety percent of his classmates do go to these classes.)

School history. Spencer entered kindergarten at the age of five years and has always attended the same school.

Comments by teachers on significant behavior:

- Kindergarten—"Requires constant individual attention. Very immature. Cannot speak distinctly. Cannot distinguish colors. Very poor handwork."
- First grade—"Has little consideration for others; hits, kicks and trips without provocation. Always striving for attention."
- First grade—"Some improvement although still quarrelsome and demanding attention."
- Second grade—"Tries very hard and is much improved since getting glasses but is achieving below grade standard in everything, but up to his ability. Many health problems have developed into attitude problems. Needs encouragement."
- Third grade—"Glasses have helped, but he is still unable to recognize letters or sounds. Tries hard and can do fairly good seat work at times. Responds to praise and encouragement. Can't follow in reading, but is eager to learn. Felt that he couldn't do good work so just gave up for a time."
- Fourth grade—"Wants constant attention. Criticises others. Poor sportsmanship in playground activities. Below grade level in all activities. Reading at pre-primer level. Number work below par. Carrying and borrowing are too much for him. Net result is a very frustrated and highly nervous child who demands attention."

Comments by teachers on his school achievement include:

- First grade—"Some progress in handwork; no interest in reading; very inattentive."
- Second grade—"Very little interest in reading but made some progress in art and handwork."
- Third grade—"Real progress in all activities but all achievement much below grade level."
- Fourth grade—"Interest has deepened somewhat. At times he tries very hard but it is difficult to hold his attention."

Standardized test data include: At the end of first grade, Spencer was given an individual test (Revised Binet). The psychologist recorded the following information: "Throughout the testing situation Spencer was quite attentive and willingly attempted whatever was asked of him. However his work was done passively and without real spontaneity or enthusiasm. Before the end of the hour he became fatigued and restless. On the Revised Binet based at year V he passed through the 8th year level. Analysis of various test items reveals that his vocabulary is that of a five year old. With this exception, all work was within the normal or average range—with no unusual test performance."

Test score— C.A. 6-9 M.A. 6-10 I.Q. 101

"Results of this test indicate that Spencer has average or normal learning ability. However, there are many factors that may be interfering with school progress. The following recommendations should be considered:

1. Home visit by nurse to obtain further information regarding child's physical condition and to offer suggestions for a program of building better health habits. (This was done.)

2. Because of extreme nervousness, emotional instability etc. this child should be referred to the Neuro-Psychiatric Clinic at the Dispensary for thorough study and examination. This recommendation depends somewhat upon the information obtained by the school nurse in her home visit. Child Guidance Clinic study is probably out of the question because of the mother's inability to follow through on suggestions.

3. Because of the entire picture, it would seem advisable for the child to remain in 1A for another semester." (The school system then abolished mid-year promotions and the semester retardation then became a year.)

His scores on school capacity tests are:

Kuhlmann-Anderson	Grade 2	C.A. 8-4	M.A. 7-3	I.Q. 87
Detroit Primary	Grade 3	C.A. 9-5	M.A. 9-1	I.Q. 96
Pintner-Durost Elem.	Grade 4	C.A. 10-5	M.A. 10-1	I.Q. 97

School Achievement Tests:

Gates Primary Read.	Grade 2	E.Q. 84	G.P. 2.08
Progressive Reading	Grade 3	E.Q. 80	G.P. 2.2
Curric. Test in Basic Skills (Arithmetic)	Grade 4	Total Score 1	
Calif. Achievement	Grade 5		
(Read. Vocab.)			G.P. 3.0
(Read. Comp.)			G.P. 2.9
(Arith. Fund.)			G.P. 3.0
(Arith. Reas.)			G.P. 2.8
(Mech. of Eng. and Grammar)			G.P. 3.2
(Spelling)			G.P. 3.7

Expected Grade Placement at this time 5.7

His group adjustment manifests many problems. At the end of his second year in the first grade, Spencer was transferred to another group because it was felt that he might make a better adjustment at the beginning of the new year if he started with a group which had not built up an attitude of hostility towards him. He has been kept with this same group for the past four years even though many parents of other children in the group have requested that he be transferred to another class. The children in this group are as understanding as it is possible for children of this age to be. A sociometric analysis revealed that he was the second choice of two boys. No provision was made for the children to indicate a rejection.

Report card marks are as follows: Spencer has consistently been marked "N" (indicating that pupil needs to improve) in reading and in other areas related to language arts. He has also received a goodly number of "Ns" in attitudes and habits such as "working well with others," "playing well with others," "courtesy," "being dependable" etc.

Home-school relationships: On every Growth Letter Report which has been sent to the home, Spencer's mother has acknowledged an understanding of his problem, thanked each teacher for her efforts and offered to help him. The concensus of opinion among those who have worked with Spencer is that she is inconsistent in her efforts, and it is questionable as to whether she is capable. In every reply she has admonished the teacher to be "strict."

Typical anecdotal reports. Spencer had elected to be on a committee of four children who had assumed responsibility for reporting to the class on a topic of class interest, during our sharing period. He brought his collection of rocks to show. When the chairman of the group stood up to tell what their topic was and how it was to be presented, Spencer interrupted by shouting, "You sit down John, I brought my rocks to show, and I am going to be first." When reminded that the committee had planned to give some basic information about the rocks first, and that he had agreed to this plan, he said, "I don't care about that stuff, I want to be first anyway. I always want to be first when I have something to show."

I asked Spencer to stay after school for a few minutes in order that we might talk about his school work. "Am I in trouble?" he asked. I assured him that there was no trouble, that I expected to do the same thing for all of the children in the class. He made the opening remark in the interview by abruptly announcing, "I'm no good in reading. I don't like to read. Last year the teacher said I was the fastest one in the room in adding."

Conclusions. The boy's primary problem is academic and this led to the development of social and emotional problems. The boy was too immature at the age of five to start to school. Furthermore, his early health history precluded his having had any nursery school or other group experiences which might have contributed to his social maturity. Again, in his first, first grade experience he was too immature to be subjected to reading instruction and his home background had in no way prepared him for reading

readiness. He quickly lost status with his group because of his inability to conform in any way with group activities. This and his continued failures caused him to develop an emotional block in the way of any real learning. His aggressive attitude was a manifestation of his attempts to gain recognition of any kind to compensate for what he could not gain from achievement in skills.

Steps taken to help the pupil solve his problem are as follows:

1. Social—In the absence of Spencer, the situation was frankly discussed with the class and concrete examples were cited to bring the group to an understanding that the welfare of the whole was dependent on the welfare of each individual. Although the children in the group are young, they responded beautifully to the challenge and a plan was worked out for the group to help him improve his social status. It included:

- a. Choosing him frequently as a leader in music and rhythmical activities (an area in which he had some ability).
- b. Choosing him frequently to work with one other child. (I manipulated this to insure no individual with whom there might be a personality clash, volunteering.)
- c. Giving more recognition to his painting and drawing, since this was another area in which the group agreed his skill was not too bad. A prominent exhibit spot was arranged in the room, and it was agreed that at least one of his pictures would be selected each week for this spot.
- d. It was agreed that an effort would be made by all, to overlook minor infractions of school and class rules and to ignore his undesirable mannerisms and behavior so long as they did not work too severe a hardship on others.
- e. In playground activities, he was to be included in intra-class games.

2. Emotional—By studying his interests, I tried to plan some activity with him for every day, that would lead him right up against the need for reading and the pleasure to be found in it. By individual counseling, I helped him develop responsibility for improving his personal appearance. I don't really understand the relationship between appearance, but I think it is significant to note that from the day that he started to keep his hair neatly combed and to wear his clothes right side out, the swaggering stride, loud voice and frequent passes at others with which he had always announced his arrival, disappeared.

3. Academic—I arranged for a case conference at the end of the first school month. Those participating included the pupil's mother, the school principal, the school psychologist, the school nurse and myself, the classroom teacher. We reviewed all data concerning his problem and concluded that the boy was in need of clinical help in reading. The mother recognized this and agreed to cooperate. An appointment was made for her to visit the Reading Clinic which she did, and Spencer was given the tests to determine whether or not he would be accepted. He qualified, but after

two days, the mother decided that she couldn't cope with the transportation problem, and she made arrangements to place him in a tutoring private school near his home. This is a private school under the direction of a retired teacher who will give him almost individual attention for several hours.

Possible outcome. The boy has been receiving special assistance for five weeks. He has made good progress in reading and is much happier. He discusses his experiences very frankly with me and with other children. He feels that he is succeeding; evidences this in his general bearing. I am reasonably sure that he will eventually be able to read at the level of his ability. I would like to see him accomplish this before he is promoted to Junior High School, but am hesitant to suggest such a goal to him because if something should prevent him from making such a gain, he might feel that he had failed again, so my emphasis with him is on how many more books he has read this month than last month, how much better he thinks he read today than he did yesterday etc.

The Junior High School program will be a much better one for Spencer than the elementary. Shop classes and band will be fine for him and he will enjoy physical education under the direction of a coach.

Other teachers and children in other classes often comment on how much "better" they think Spencer is now and many parents who visit in the classroom make the same observation. This would indicate that his social status is improving.

Some Principles Basic to the Learning Process

Learning must be goal-directed, particularly since the learner is continually undergoing changes in his behavior. How these changes take place and in what direction is a direct challenge to the guidance program. The effort to define objectives has brought about generally a fresh and vital use of existing psychological knowledge of learning and individual development.² In line with the newer attempts to evaluate procedures for directing learning the following principles have been presented for discussion.³ These principles are not given in any order of importance. Rather they are to be considered as of equal value, all of them inter-related in the process of learning.

Goals in Learning. It generally has been agreed that effective learning is an organized, i.e., an ordered, process, proceeding from simple

² W. S. Monroe (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1950), p. 324.

A re-examination of Chapter 4 of this text may be helpful.

³ L. P. Thorpe and A. M. Schmuller, *op. cit.*, Chap. XIII.

to complex. Thus there exists direction set *beforehand*. This is particularly true of learning in a democracy, wherein certain goals have already been set by the society. Directed learning is concerned with the degree to which desirable objectives are being achieved. Further, direction in learning seeks to guarantee the elimination of such factors as may be inimical to the proper development of the child. The construction of an effective learning program depends on planning and evaluation in terms of this planning. It is one of the stronger points of guidance theory that it has clarified this principle.

Learning as a Unified Process. Guidance, involved as it is with growth and development, has from the beginning been obliged to consider the problem of "dualism" or the separation of mind and body. Research has borne out the thesis that the child responds in holistic fashion. Responses involve the total apparatus, both intellectual and physical. Learning is thus a matter of unified functioning rather than a piecemeal activity. To develop a skill, for example, like throwing a ball, requires the same functions as does mastering an arithmetic table. The total organism responds to the demand (stimulus) in both cases.

Considered in this way learning becomes an aspect of the educational process which leads to the formation of the mature individual, socially, physically, emotionally, and otherwise.

Experience and Learning. Experience is an intensely individual matter which pervades all our beliefs and attitudes. Everyone learns from his own introduction to and experience of an activity. In the educational program it is essential that the learner himself be the focus of interest, and that instruction be, for the most part, child-oriented. Each child brings his own experiences to the learning situation, which in turn leads to new experiences. It is the sum total of these experiences which makes up the pattern of learning. Thus if the teacher can accept each child for what he is and go on from there he is following in the best tradition of guidance.

The Physiological Basis of Learning. Although it has not been fully explained yet how the human nervous system functions in the learning process, enough evidence has emerged favorable to the belief that the brain (the major coordinating organ of the nervous system) is the seat of learning. Research on a vast scale with animals has supported the view that learning is an operation of the nervous system acting as a whole. Investigation into the functions of the cortex of the human, by means of trauma or other disturbances, has helped to substantiate

the thesis that the neuro-physiological structure is involved in the learning process.⁴ It is obvious how important the brain is to mere consciousness. In view of this and other considerations guidance must be concerned with the physiological as well as the psychological aspects of learning.

Emotion in Learning. Emotion now appears as a primary determinant of learning. Periods of tension, pleasurable or disturbing, tend to inhibit or reinforce learning. The importance of the well-balanced teacher is here obvious since her attitudes are reflected in her pupils' emotional status. The teacher creates much of the emotional climate in the classroom from her own personality. Effective learning depends on the well-adjusted teacher and pupil.

Learning and the Self-Concept. As most behavior is directed toward the attainment of those goals which seem important to the person in the satisfaction of his needs, how the individual interprets his goals and the acceptable methods of attaining them are significant in the learning process. For example, Johnny at sixteen perceives the ownership of an automobile to be the most important thing in his life. He is willing to go to extremes to get one, even to steal parts for building one. At this point he is learning rapidly within the field of experiences he values as important. His interpretation of his needs and how to satisfy them colors most of his learning. Thus, according to Rogers,⁵ the individual's "internal frame of reference" must be understood in assisting the pupil in his learning process, whether in group instruction or in individual counseling. Furthermore, Rogers explains, challenging his values and self-concepts makes the pupil defensive while understanding of them by a teacher or counselor encourages the constructive forces of the individual to assimilate the values of society and live accordingly.

Importance of Instruction

Learning is dependent not only upon the learner's effort, but as well upon the organized presentation of that which is to be learned. The following passage well describes the teacher's role in the learning process:

⁴ See, for example, K. Goldstein, *Human Nature in the Light of Psychopathology* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1940).

⁵ C. R. Rogers, *Client-Centered Therapy* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951).

Teaching is an intensely personal relationship. The teacher's personality has long been recognized as the most important element in the social environment of the classroom. Effective teachers are friendly, constructive, encouraging, and supporting in their human relations. They are interested in and enthusiastic about the things children find intriguing. They are ingenious and skillful in planning challenging learning experiences. They are poised and unwaveringly courteous in their contacts with children. They understand and accept children for what they are and recognize their opportunity to help each child to do and be his best.⁶

To hold the notion that students learn only through their own efforts is to ignore the meaning of instruction. The school, it is assumed, takes the responsibility for the *directed* application of selected phases of the cultural heritage. This implies that the teacher is in great part responsible for the selection of those values which society has deemed proper or desirable to transmit to the young through the schools.

Guidance programs in the past have tended to neglect the role of the teacher. However it has now become evident that specialists alone can not operate the guidance program in the school. It is the teacher who arranges the subject matter, directs the course of learning, and interprets the goals which have been set up for him.

To ignore the above facts, as some specialists in guidance perhaps have unwittingly done, is to overlook many of the implications of guidance in education. There is much to be said for teaching which is so directed and which so motivates the student that he seeks to gain more knowledge of his subject. By virtue of its *formal* nature—if not formal why have all the paraphernalia of schools?—any learning involves preparation. Since what is important and should be learned is beyond the pupil's comprehension at the outset, it remains for the teacher to initiate and continually guide the course of instruction.

Counseling of individuals with deep emotional problems is, however, better left to the professional since ineptitude may sometimes cause irreparable damage. Furthermore, teachers may not possess the training requisite for administering and interpreting test results. In this connection, it is well to note that most testing is now done by professionals.

Need for Organized Procedures. Methods of instruction represent recognition of the fact that an *ordered* arrangement of classroom procedure is necessary if the desired learning is to take place. From the

⁶ Helen Hefernan, "The Role of the Teacher in Guidance," *Guidance for Today's Children*, Thirty-third Yearbook, The National Elementary School Principal (Washington: National Education Association, 1954), p. 64.

seeming chaos which confronts the beginner, the teacher selects those kinds of experiences which are designed to educate the pupil. It would appear futile to speak about modifications of behavior without first considering the direction in which it is hoped such changes can be effected. It is the teacher who must furnish the guidance in the classroom for the learning process.

But there is no way for the teacher to transmit knowledge except through the student's ability to grasp its meaning (hence the value of shared experience). The teacher must set up the primary conditions for learning in terms of the individual's abilities. This individual attention to learning marks the guidance function in the classroom.

But such attention demands adequate information and skills on the part of the teacher. As Williams and Laurits write, "It may be argued that teaching is an art. If so, it is an art which is raised to greater powers by knowledge, both for the rare persons who are intuitively successful in challenging students and for the great majority of teachers who acquire and increase their skills through practice and learning."⁷

Learning and Effective Work Habits. In all the furor over educational methods it is possible that one fundamental point has been overlooked, namely, what has happened to the learner after he has departed from the classroom. Too much emphasis has been placed on teaching methods to the exclusion of the results of such methods in terms of the pupils' later development.

Among the criticisms leveled at modern education is its preoccupation with "life adjustment," with "personality expression" at the expense of establishing good work habits. Classrooms today are indeed more interesting for pupils. Few will deny that learning should be exciting and creative. But it is argued much of today's classroom procedure ignores the real need of students, i.e., the establishment of effective work habits.

The adjusted human being is our goal but pupils need also to be taught that learning is not just a game. There is still much that is monotonous and uninteresting in the learning process, considerations which must be accepted as part of the price for learning. It is unfair to the young to let them bypass the concentrated effort necessary for the mastery of subject-matter.

Again, it would seem to be more important for the future welfare of

⁷ S. Williams and J. D. Laurits, "Scientists and Education," *The Scientific Monthly*, May, 1951, pp. 282-288.

the child not to be so concerned with making lessons easy and "painless." Many successful people have found and noted a certain satisfaction in hard work and achievement. The world is not always a painless and happy experience. There is much to be recommended in classroom procedure which encourages initiative and effective habits of work. The problem is that of a proper balance of interest and discipline in learning.

Suggestions for Classroom Discipline. The most effective means of evaluating the discipline which is maintained in the classroom comes through the students themselves. Guidance of pupil activities in terms of interest and accomplishment serves as the key to the well-ordered classroom.

The following measures for insuring pupil discipline have been submitted: (1) the development of group morale and respect for others on the part of each pupil; (2) the establishment of a program of instruction which minimizes both domination and overprotection of any pupil; (3) the making of the welfare of the group as a whole serve as the basis of any disciplinary measure—since learning can not be separated from discipline; (4) the recognition that there does exist a distinction between basic causes of misconduct and the harmless pranks of children; (5) the realization that any punishment should not be teacher imposed, but should be a consequence of willful misbehavior; and (6) the establishment of democratic procedures to be accepted by all as a criterion for class conduct.

Waller, principal of Mira Costa High, has suggested the following seventeen rules for maintaining good discipline in the classroom:

1. Plan the day's work in advance.
2. Be sure that students know the assignment.
3. Place time limit on all written work.
4. Be firm in your dealing with students.
5. Be fair.
6. Be calm.
7. Do not teach to in-attention.
8. Be in your room ahead of the students.
9. Start the class to work at once. (In the older classes) roll might be taken by a reliable student.
10. Develop an interest in every student in your class.
11. Be sure to grade and return all written work turned in by students.
12. Be sure you do not allow favors to jeopardize class morale.
13. Plan to control your own classroom. Send students to vice-principal or principal only as a last resort.
14. Learn the names of your students quickly.
15. Use a seating chart where needed.

16. The more you know about your students the more interest you will develop in them.

17. Don't make a lot of rigid statements. Be sure you can defend a statement when you make it.⁸

Learning and Individual Problems

A fundamental problem which education must face is found in the guidance of individuals who, for one reason or another, vary from accepted norms. This problem is particularly germane to the guidance program. A knowledge and understanding of the abnormal or exceptional pupil provides the basis upon which that pupil is assisted in his struggle towards adjustment.

The teacher needs always to bear in mind that children respond in their own unique fashion. The "norm" is not the chief problem in the classroom since it is only an arbitrary standard. Nowhere does there appear to exist such splendid opportunities to help every individual learn according to his capacity to do so as in guidance.

The fact that each student is a unique personality requires that consideration of his special needs and problems be interpreted in terms of this uniqueness. Differences vary from one extreme to the other even in the normal group. The successful teacher will have to employ his skill and understanding in drawing up a procedure ample enough to include varying needs in individuals. A crippled child may appear to act differently from his more fortunate fellows, but his basic attitudes are likely to be the same. On the other hand two apparently normal children may vary extremely in their outlook on life. The student should be helped to interpret his experiences and to gain that kind of understanding of himself which will assist him in seeing both his strengths and weaknesses. Smith outlines the teacher's responsibilities as follows:

The teacher needs to know the interests of each pupil in order that classroom activities may be planned to capitalize upon those interests. The concept of individualized instruction assumes that the teacher knows the optimum level at which each pupil will perform in the classroom . . . the individual's success must occur within the limits of his capacities and interests. Frequently he needs help to understand better his assets and liabilities which bear upon his present and future plans and upon the probabilities of success or failure.⁹

⁸ L. W. Waller, "Advice to Teachers on Classroom Discipline," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 30, No. 7 (November 1955), pp. 421-422.

⁹ G. E. Smith, *Principles and Practices of the Guidance Program* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1951), pp. 124-125.

Recognition of the Maladjusted. For the teacher *recognition* that specialized help is needed is the primary problem in dealing with maladjustment. Counseling implies a deeper disturbance than the teacher is ordinarily equipped to handle. For this purpose she can refer the pupil who needs help to the professional counselor.

In the normal procedure of the classroom the teacher can hold interviews with pupils as a means of getting to know more about them. Communication is the primary means we have of exchanging information. Teaching provides this means of exchanging ideas and attitudes. The personal element in teacher-pupil counseling may be used to excellent advantage in the simpler forms of counseling.

Children enjoy talking about themselves, their homes, their friends, and the like interests. Many of them consider the teacher as a kind of second parent to whom they entrust their confidences. In this pupil-teacher situation there is not the relationship of client and counselor as in the professional situation, but rather a cooperative educational effort. The teacher as adviser is thus concerned with individual development and the child's own abilities to enjoy such development.

The experiences which are met in the growing years form the foundation of later behavior. These experiences, when translated in terms of the classroom, are, in the main, inter-personal relationships involving teacher and pupil as well as pupil and pupil. Studies on the "gang" have indicated, for example, how children's standards affect classroom behavior. Often the teacher is puzzled by a youngster who even against his own inclinations is misbehaving in order to maintain prestige with his gang. Because of these and like considerations an effort must be made to realize how inter-personal relations occur and how they are affected. Keliher writes, for instance, that, "we are beginning to be more and more concerned about how to compose groups, how to put children together in living groups, so that out of living groups they learn . . . democracy, this other dimension of growth, which can come only through living with your peers—living well with your peers—and learning through experience the problems of living in a group."¹⁰

Guided Learning

It seems possible, for practical purposes, to single out from psychological research a number of fundamental inter-locked principles or procedures which embody the main features of learning theory. It is

¹⁰ A. V. Keliher, "The Professional Person—A Mental Hygiene Resource," *Mental Hygiene*, Vol. 34 (1950), pp. 274-279.

probable that in actual classroom situations the procedures to be followed can profitably be reduced to a few which are basic to most views on learning.

Learning about the pupil and helping him to learn about himself provide the foundation of a theory of learning. If the teacher is able through his efforts to acquaint the pupil with significant facts about himself he has provided him with a framework of adjustment. There are certain principles which have proved helpful in providing the setting for a program of learning. According to Thorpe,¹¹ these principles are as follows: (1) motivation through the use of the learner's interests, (2) the proper balance of learning to adjustment level of pupil, (3) the intelligent patterning of instruction particularly with reference to skills, (4) the proper use of evaluation in the direction of the learning process, and (5) broad integrated development on the part of the learner through an adequate program.

Motivation. Learning has been found to proceed more effectively and to have more chance to become permanent when the learner is made to feel part of the activity. (Interest must be geared to aptitude, it should be added here.) The individual who desires, for example, to become an engineer will do all he can to acquire such information as relates to his ambition. This motivation is all to the good and to be encouraged—provided there exists some aptitudes in this area. Possessing a real interest in any area is the very basis of learning success and a necessary instrument in the development of skills and other abilities. Children, for instance, learn motor skills (e.g., ball throwing, bicycle riding, etc.) when these skills are realistically related to personal aspirations. Everyone is familiar with the intense desire of the American boy to become a "big-leaguer" in the baseball world. Many of these youths will practice for hours and hours in order to perfect their skill at pitching or batting. The same youngsters would probably dread a mere half-hour practice at the piano if they had no interest in music. On the other hand the young person who is interested in a musical career can hardly be stopped from practicing at his chosen instrument. Motivation serves as a spark for achievement. As Woodworth puts it, "Achievement equals ability times motivation."¹²

Adjustment to Level of Maturation. When a pupil is to learn a new skill, such as throwing a baseball, or playing a drum, he must be sufficiently mature for the task. The pupil himself needs to recognize his

¹¹ L. P. Thorpe and A. M. Schmuller, *op. cit.*, pp. 449-465.

¹² R. S. Woodworth, *Psychology* (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1940), p. 366.

limitations as well as his capacity. The guidance program should be prepared to demonstrate the relationship between the individual's interest in a lesson or skill and the chances of his achieving any proficiency. In effect, learning takes place most effectively when the learner is physically and intellectually able to handle it.

Successful use of this principle of maturation involves the application of two subordinate concepts: (1) The teacher should be careful not to tax the student too far beyond his ability. That is, the activity must be so planned that the learner comes to master more and more complex tasks without being frustrated by any untoward difficulties. The learning experience must fit both the learner's ability and interest. (2) The second principle suggests that learning occurs most effectively when there is an intelligent distribution of work and rest in the activity or activities presented to the learner. Drill should be intelligently spaced. Both overconcentration or too long a work period tend to impair learning. Adequate rest periods give the learner time to assimilate that which has been taught him.

It is essential to determine, in the case of each pupil (and within the scope of each activity) what the most successful distribution of work and rest is. This precaution is especially necessary in the case of the more mature activities such as typing, violin playing, etc. Practice sessions, in view of the short span of interest, should be spaced to avoid undue fatigue, boredom, and lessened interest on the part of the pupil.

Pattern Learning. Learning is now believed to be more a matter of "grasping the essential relationships" of a problem than piecing together its different parts. Learning tends to proceed more rapidly and becomes more permanent when the learner is provided with the opportunity for perceiving meaningful relationships among the elements of the goal toward which he is striving. A song, for example, is best learned when the pupil comes to see the words and music as a total pattern. Memorizing the words or the music apart from the words does not present the student with a full meaning of the song. Or put in another way, perhaps to reduce the music of any song to memorizing the notes on the staff or sharps and flats is to destroy that intrinsic element which makes it a song in the first place.

Another example can be found in the baseball player who confines himself to throwing and batting practice alone. Such a player is only halfway towards his goal. He becomes a good team player by actually playing the "whole" game with others. It is a commonplace of modern sports that team work, i.e., each player grasping the total pattern, is the basic essential of a successful team.

The more clearly the pattern of an objective is understood the more permanent the learning tends to become. The pupil who hopes one day to become an attorney tends to look at his various subjects in terms of their meaning to him. Debating and civics, for example, are more interesting to him than they necessarily would be to others. These subjects form part of the broader pattern which for the would-be attorney leads to the coveted goal. A pupil, however, who is only interested in mechanics might consider the same subjects that interest the would-be lawyer as something to be avoided or at best passively endured.

Literature, as an area of learning, is, perhaps, the classic example of pattern learning. The mechanics of grammar, important though they are, have little value in themselves alone. Taken as a means whereby the pupil is helped in his appreciation of the masterpieces of literature, they have real and enduring value. Tenses and punctuation, for example, have little or no meaning unless their use is comprehended in everyday language.

Evaluation of Progress. Students are concerned with success (or lack of it) in their school activities. Hence learning is made more effective when the learner is kept appraised of his progress. A learner needs to know whether he should forge ahead or slow down. Evaluation can and should be used as a positive form of guidance.

Evaluation also helps to stimulate interest. Tests which indicate progress have been employed successfully by many instructors. Pupils have many times been stimulated for example to increased effort through charting their progress on a line graph. Very few students will not respond to knowledge of success or failure.

Broad Integrated Development. It is a commonplace of modern education that a pupil learns most adequately when provided with those opportunities which satisfy his personal needs, e.g., personality adjustment and social growth. Human beings tend in one way or another to strive for the respect and esteem of their fellows.

It is futile, as well, to speak of improving "character" without reference to the complete background of the individual. Every aspect of education enters into the development of the learner. A learner's growth is not marked off in sections called improvement in reading, writing, and arithmetic, vital though these above subjects may be in the educational process. Mere proficiency in school work will not make the citizen of the future a mature personality.

The student who acquires skills and abilities tends to increase in

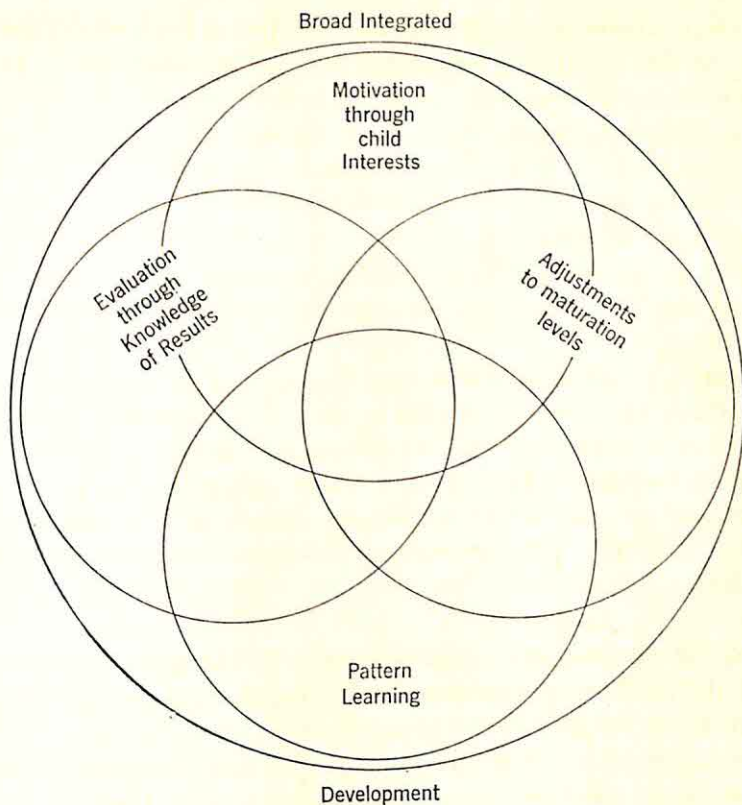


Fig. 9-1. *Integrated Principles of Motor Learning.* (After Thorpe.¹³)

self-confidence, social poise, and competence to face difficulties with firmness and without fear. It should be recognized that the development of an integrated personality during his formative years will go far towards making the pupil a more mature individual. Learning is best promoted when the pattern of learning experiences is integrated with the pupil's fundamental organic, personal, and social needs. (See Fig. 9-1.)

Learning Activities

In seeking to meet pupil needs the teacher should have a broad, organized activities plan to consult whenever necessary. This plan should contain a résumé of the existing school facilities and equipment,

¹³ L. P. Thorpe, *Child Psychology and Development* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1955), p. 561.

space, season, social studies, music education, calender, and community facilities and children's hobbies and interests.

Units should be set up for activities covering length of time to learn skills necessary to master and enjoy them. Plans should be flexible enough to meet the daily demands for change and evaluation. Physical education periods, for example, whenever in progress should be organized according to age and capacity to play the different games.

Play activities are especially important to the teacher in his role as guidance worker. Play activities require appropriate equipment and an area large enough to make them effective for the purposes involved. Such purposes include muscle coordination, social relationships, leadership, education, etc. The success of any play period on any grade level is measured to the degree in which it assists each child in his growth and development. Choosing the proper games and materials is largely the teacher's responsibility on the elementary level. In high school the effort must be made to integrate the physical education activities with the rest of the program. Textbooks, teaching guides, etc., need to be of the kind which are not only informative but which present a recognized challenge to the pupil. Most teachers are aware of how dissatisfied and even resentful pupils become when they can not understand what is being presented to them.

Planning pupil activities, then, must be varied and flexible with rest and work periods properly spaced. Creative expression may be substituted for play periods (painting, drawing, woodwork, etc.). Emotional tension is released during periods of creativity. If the student express himself adequately and fully as a result of planned activities he is more likely to become adjusted. Lowenfeld defends creative expression by writing that, "the satisfaction from . . . creative work documents itself in the profound feelings of a great achievement." He goes on to say that not only does such achievement create confidence but that, "it is an established fact that nearly every emotion or mental disturbance is connected with a lack of self-confidence . . ." ¹⁴

Need for Coordinated Planning. Integration of classroom activities is an urgent matter on all levels of instruction. It is, however, obvious that the more advanced students are academically and physically the simpler will be the task. On any level educational activities must be correlated with the needs of the students or the aim of society.

For example, the teacher can combine instruction in the square dance and some Indian tribal dance with a unit on the opening of the

¹⁴ V. Lowenfeld, *Creative and Mental Growth* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1947), pp. 5-6.

American frontier. Such dances are a physical means for introducing historical eras. Dances may also be presented in conjunction with some great American's birthday. On the other hand foreign dance steps or patterns can illuminate citizenship privileges and the like.

In addition, the teacher can discuss personal hygiene, the need for health in conjunction with the biological sciences. By coordinating school activities the teacher can enrich the pupil's learning.

The classroom program should be so constructed that students come to learn what responsibility means. To coordinate classroom activities it is first necessary to discover what pupil motives are operating and how to avoid coming into conflict with them. The American Association of School Administrators submit the following program for health education:

. . . health teaching can be most effectively accomplished thru (a) the utilization of daily experiences for guidance in health behavior, (b) stimulation of the practice of health habits, (c) development of understanding of the environments and the activities of people, and (d) the use of health readers and creative expression.¹⁵

Health promotion functions through health education which provides those learning experiences that contribute to the development of desirable attitudes. One of the most useful means to coordinate the health program is the unit, about which there has been some controversy. Advocates of the unit-of-work technique hold that it is more effective than direct teaching of skills or lessons. But that care and discretion must be used in planning any unit of work is evidenced in the following passage:

When such practices [unit programs] are carried to an extreme, they involve both the teacher and the children in difficulties and dangers. Activities may be introduced which contribute little to the attainment of the major objectives of the unit; these may be a forced correlation of materials and skills which are not an integral part of the unit. Neither does it seem natural or wise to limit . . . reading, discussion, and other activities to one subject, however important it may be for three or four hours daily over a period of several months.¹⁶

The classroom program is profoundly colored by many outside influences. These factors can be utilized by the teacher to promote

¹⁵ American Association of School Administrators *Health in Schools*, Twentieth Yearbook (Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1942), p. 66.

¹⁶ F. Adams, *Educating America's Children* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1946), p. 149.

her own program. For example, scout activities can be brought into the play period to point up the need for physical health. Scouts are interested in a number of activities which require physical stamina. Most boys wish to excel in their troop activities. Merit badges and other awards for skill hold a high place in the young person's life. To acquire these badges often requires a high level of physical efficiency.

Students are also deeply affected by modern sporting events. A boy is more likely to know the batting or pitching averages of some of his baseball heroes than how to add or subtract in arithmetic. With such outside interest, the skillful teacher can sharpen the desire for physical health.

Girls, too, are interested in many outside activities which tend to influence their behavior. Dancing seen so much on TV or movie screens is dependent upon physical skill. Interest in nursing can be made part of the general health program.

Regardless of the activity what is important is how the teacher helps the learner to grow and develop. Macomber writes:

Under the guidance of a teacher with a modern concept of the nature of the learning process and the aims of education, the unit "Our Democratic Government" can become a thrilling experience in learning how we are solving our problems of living together in community, state, and nation. It can and should be a real experience in group planning and executing, of living democracy—not merely studying and reciting about governmental institutions.¹⁷

Referral Services. The classroom teacher has definite limitations. She is, for example, not always equipped to do effective home visiting. Nor is she a health specialist, psychologist, or psychiatrist. Nevertheless, the teacher frequently finds herself in positions requiring the assistance of specialists. It follows from this that the teacher must know where to turn for help. To function properly the teacher needs to have available to her a list of services to which she can refer those pupils who stand in need of specialized help.

It requires considered planning to assign to each of those involved their proper place and emphasis in the guidance program. This is because the different phases of guidance are so inter-related that it is difficult to mark out where one begins and another steps aside. It falls to the teacher's lot to ascertain just when she needs outside help.

When the teacher is in doubt about a pupil's condition conferences with the specialists who are available are in order. Unfortunately, thus far only the large schools offer full-time physicians, dentists, or

¹⁷ F. G. Macomber, *Teaching in the Modern Secondary School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952), p. 75.

school nurses. However, virtually every school has some such assistance if only furnished on a part-time basis.

It is the specialist who must diagnose and treat those cases requiring therapy. Specialists make known physical defects and give remedial advice. Such advice may be given to the parents or the teacher, usually both. The teacher should not hesitate to call upon these professional people for help. The degree of need for such help must rest with her.

Effective Study

As success and failure in the school program of studies has so many implications and exerts so much influence in personal life, it is important to help or guide each pupil to develop effective study habits. Good study habits do not develop "naturally" for any pupil, including the gifted. They develop from a planned program of assistance by teachers and parents—preferably working harmoniously. Following are some suggested practices for good study habits. Each pupil should be helped:

1. To seek a motive, or even several motives, for studying the subject under consideration.
2. To maintain good physical and mental health.
3. To learn to budget time for study both at school and at home. This includes proper spacing of study and rest periods, and to concentrate on a problem by excluding extraneous stimuli.
4. To establish a specific place for study where optimum physical working conditions are available.
5. To learn to use the library and other reference and resource materials.
6. To read well and in accordance with the need, i.e., to know when to scan, when to read intensively, etc.
7. To learn how to prepare for and take both objective and essay type tests.
8. To adapt study methods to the needs of the subject, time and situation. In other words, the pupil should learn when drill is needed, when insight learning is required and when to study for broad concepts or details.
9. To take good notes on his reading and other studying.
10. To write reports and papers, whether literary and creative or scientific and problem solving.
11. To learn for maximum retention either for simple recall or intelligent application of subject matter. Good memory habits and overlearning should be stressed.
12. To evaluate the products of his efforts so that he may feel success for his achievements when they represent his best effort.¹⁸

¹⁸ There are many good booklets on effective study methods. One of the better ones is: The New York State Counselors Association, *Tips On How To Study* (Albany, New York: Delmar Publishers, 1956), 74 pp.

Summary

Modern theories of learning are more ambitious in scope than has heretofore been the case. Learning is a process which extends from birth to death. The individual learns throughout his lifetime, many times unevenly, sometimes without the benefit of formal education. Much of this "incidental" learning comes from sources outside the classroom, viz., the home, friends, television, etc.

Thus, it is seen how necessary is the guidance of learning in a world which tends to confuse the learner. The classroom should be a place wherein the pupil is presented with those materials calculated to challenge his abilities and improve his understanding. Education is a discriminative process, choosing and discarding from our cultural repository. The most effective learning takes place when methods and goals are geared to interest and ability.

Suggested Problems

1. Evaluate the teacher's treatment of Spencer. What things did she do which were particularly constructive? What things would you have done differently?
2. When might a teacher need to call on professional help regarding a problem arising out of a classroom situation?
3. How might you (as a teacher) help your pupils develop some of the practices for effective study suggested by your text?
4. Think of some specific thing which you learned well when you were in school. What was the stimulus for learning? What factors have helped you remember the situation?
5. Your school has been criticized for stressing "life adjustment" to the neglect of basic skills. Can you justify the teaching methods used?
6. Differentiate between emotional learning and intellectual learning.

Suggested Readings

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See also the references cited in the footnotes.

Chapter 10

Guidance in Groups

Group guidance is an innovation which owes much of its importance to the mental-hygiene movement in education as well as in American society generally. The classroom is not only by its very nature a learning situation but one in which mental-hygiene practices become possible. Guidance in learning emphasizes the manner in which skills and information are acquired both individually and in the group situation. Group guidance, however, while concerned with these learning aspects emphasizes the possibilities of the group as a means for social and emotional adjustment. It is these possibilities which are explored in the present chapter.

Aspects of Group Guidance

The mental-hygiene program in education owes its prominence to recognition of the individual as a person beset with problems which influence his behavior to a larger degree than was originally considered possible. The student is first of all a human being, a truism the primary importance of which has been strangely overlooked for many years. Mental hygiene is thus not only a technique for dealing with the maladjusted but also a means for providing experiences

which help prevent such maladjustments in the first place. In a large sense group guidance is mental hygiene in practice.

Virtually all predictions for the future presuppose a protracted period of *mass* education. Explosive birth rates along with lack of facilities and trained personnel are impressive factors underlining these predictions. Thus the evidence clearly points to more emphasis upon guidance from the group situation. The inevitable question which then arises is this: How to maintain the necessary balance between concern for the individual and the problems associated with the group?

A group may be defined as a number of persons joined together to carry out some common purpose. Thus a nation is as much a group as is a baseball team. In both instances its members are related by mutual aspirations and interests.

The classroom obviously is a group by virtue of its structure. In addition, students tend to form their own little groups within the larger group of the classroom itself. Likes and dislikes motivate the formation of different cliques. Students gravitate towards certain others for companionship. By the same token, they tend to ignore those whom, for one reason or another, they dislike. Every teacher is familiar with this grouping process which takes place within the confines of his classroom and the extracurricular activities.

Group processes form the starting-point for instruction in the classroom and activity programs. Group guidance in the school may thus be described as a means for providing the experiences for more than one person which help insure emotional and social adjustment. Interpreted in this way, *group guidance becomes an inter-active process underlining a give-and-take relationship*. It is assumed, thereby, that all concerned will make their own unique contribution to the group and in turn share the benefits arising from such contributions. The very essence of group guidance is, in fact, this exchange of experiences in terms of a common goal. Dall writes that, "Personal and subjective experiences acquire social significance when shared with other persons. The ultimate import of self-psychology derives from its social relevance."¹

Relationships of Individual and Group. Further, human behavior itself as presently observed is a manifestation of group living. The individual, it is true, may be regarded in terms of his own unique qualities, but there is little doubt of how important are the group

¹ Edgar A. Dall, *The Measurement of Social Competence* (Minneapolis, Minnesota: Educational Test Bureau, Educational Publishers, 1953), p. 2.

forces which bear upon these qualities. The proof of this statement may be found in the actions and activities of members of a group. Who, for example, does not recognize the American citizen in whatever country he may be found? Or the British subject? The group leaves its imprint upon those who compose it. The need for group guidance thus arises on every hand.

Each person is the product of what he inherited from his parents, what experiences he has undergone, and how he has responded to these experiences. It is no doubt correct to assert that if we could comprehend all those inter-acting forces which tend to make an individual what he is, we would thereby understand why he behaved as he did and would further realize that his behavior was also due to environmental factors. It is, however, hardly possible to reconstruct all the links in the chain of influences upon the individual, but the search to understand everything about the individual does lead us to an acceptance of him for what he is and not for what he should be.

Man alone is comparatively helpless. But with the aid of others he has managed to build great civilizations. In his helplessness, there was bondage—in his combined strength, there came subsequent progress. This cooperation is the essence of group guidance: to so help develop the individual that not only is he a better person for himself, but he makes his unique contribution to the group of which he is a member.

Planned Experiences. Group guidance, as a process and as exemplified in its techniques, arises first out of the problems of the individual. Through the use of diagnostic tools the guidance worker seeks to discover what pattern of behavior is representative of each individual. When such knowledge is available, it becomes possible to set up those experiences which are designed to increase the person's ability to more effectively develop or to reduce those tensions which already exist.

Planned experiences (e.g., controlling the classroom environment in the school, visiting industry, etc.) are, however, not to be construed as an avoidance of educational problems. Neither do such experiences imply authoritarian practices. Instead they are to be considered as a means to improve those abilities needed to solve one's problems through providing the necessary conditions for this improvement. Thus the main design of planned experiences is found in the need for strengthening the individual's own ability to meet the problems of living without being overcome by them.

Since group guidance emerges out of the problems of the individual,

group experiences must be based upon those conditions which will help solve these problems. Meeting the pupil's needs, for example, underscores classroom planning. Common goals are defined and explored together by the group (e.g., how to get along with one's peers, how to study more effectively, etc.). The needs of both the individual and group may, therefore, be met through organized classroom experiences. McNassor writes as follows with respect to organized experiences:

If students become involved in causes for which to live beyond immediate student life gratifications, become more certain of their acceptance and identity in our communities, and become more temporarily dependent upon us (more affectionate), we [the teachers] will be reaching and supporting them through English, social studies, and science, and the question of the roles of curriculum and guidance in the program of studies will be less artificially and mechanically defined.²

Group Guidance and Adjustment

The areas and purposes of guidance were previously defined as threefold: (1) understanding the individual; (2) preventing maladjustment through providing conditions by which impairment may be avoided or at least reduced; and (3) assisting the individual to improve his own abilities to develop. Each of these areas is dependent upon the other for content and direction. Hence in the planning of any experiences, it is to be remembered that the individual must be understood, and that his experiences must be planned both in terms of prevention of extreme hardships and improvement of individual abilities.

While adjustment is personal, it also involves adjustment to something external as well. A person may be said to behave or misbehave in terms of moral, social, and legal codes. When the individual, for one reason or another, can not accept certain standards, conflict usually takes place. The delinquent, for example, is very often the product of revolt against authority. Learning, in fact, is a process of becoming aware of community standards of behavior and the need for their acceptance.

Providing a diversified curriculum offers a subtle means for enriching school experiences. For there does remain the basic fact that pupils do vary widely in interests, abilities, and potentialities. There

² D. McNassor, "The Changing Character of Adolescents," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 31 (1956), p. 131.

is then a real need for a controlled environment in connection with such important procedures as course content and testing norms. For the "backward" as well as the "gifted" child there will have to be a curriculum broad and imaginative enough to adequately cover the needs of both. Individuals are not different in kind, but in degree. Those at the ends of the "normal curve" are now considered as exceptional individuals, not as a class apart. The exceptional child can develop within the framework of existing institutions whenever specialized institutions are not available. No pupil need be neglected if the program is designed in terms of the entire group.

Group Processes

The programming or assemblage of pupils in groups is in itself a group process and lays the basis for possible guidance. Education thus being a group process

... it involves large groups of children who vary physically, intellectually, and emotionally. The pressures of life's experiences vary widely from child to child. It is obvious that some children will need individual help to make the most of the opportunity offered by the school for group experiences. If the purposes of the school are not fulfilled because of unnecessary and limiting factors, then the taxpayers' or donors' money is being wasted.³

It is clear that individuals are participating in group processes in one form or another from cradle to grave. Urban living has accentuated the problem of group relationships never envisioned in the rural societies. Through group guidance, the values of instruction are heightened both in terms of individual development and social obligations.

The Parent and Group Guidance. The infant's first contacts are made with the family group to which he is born. The family composes the nucleus out of which is formed the wellsprings of later behavior patterns. In this connection, early respect for law and order are definitely the responsibility of the parents. The teacher, too, represents law and order in his own person. Obviously the response to him by the child is dependent upon early home training.

There exists today no little confusion as to the nature of discipline and the place of authority in the life of the child. It is obvious that

³ J. R. Pearman and A. H. Burrows, *Social Services in the School* (Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1955), p. 3.

firm direction must first come from the parents. Society has its "do's" and "don'ts" to which the child will have to eventually conform. In this respect, parents require guidance as well as their children. There has been so much controversy of late over the meaning of discipline that some clarification of this particular issue has become necessary. Stern and Gould discuss the problem as follows:

The serious drawback in modern education is that far too often neither the parent nor the child knows where he stands. Their respective roles are not well defined. We are trying hard to do the best for our children but in many instances we fail because we do not know how. We have read so much about the child's development and his needs, about how to avoid creating emotional disturbances in him, that we hesitate at each step, asking ourselves anxiously: "Should I interfere?" And it is that hesitation that spells the downfall of our authority. The child senses our indecision and uses it to his full advantage.⁴

The child who is handled firmly and justly in his early years at home is far more likely to respond to authority than is the one who has been either pampered or abused. The school environment usually has a profound impact upon the child when he first comes into contact with it. Adequately prepared, his first prolonged experience away from home should not disturb him too much. Which of us does not look back upon those first days of school with mixed feelings? Fear and curiosity are blended in the young child as he enters the classroom for the first time. It is plain that such an event in the child's life must be carefully planned. Living and getting along with others will now become a daily occurrence for him and it can be a rewarding experience. Through group living in the classroom, pupils learn more about themselves and their schoolmates; about what is and what is not acceptable, and how to get along with people in groups. These first experiences will influence the bulk of the individual's future behavior.

Community Participation

Group processes form the starting point for social living as reflected in classroom practice. In this respect they can also be looked upon as preventive techniques since adjustment to group living within the school helps to prepare the individual for group living outside the

⁴ C. Stern and T. S. Gould, *The Early Years of Childhood, Education Through Insight* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955), p. 5.

school. Virtually all employment is today employment on a group level. This condition makes preparation for group adjustment a necessary obligation of the school.

Another and very important aspect of group training is seen in the military service which faces most young men. The armed forces, themselves, are in the forefront in urging wider and more thorough community participation in preparing young men for future group life as exemplified in military service. Military training literally requires teamwork and competence. The maladjusted youth faces real trouble when and if he is called up for training in the armed forces. On the other hand, the adequately prepared young man can benefit in many ways from his tour of duty as a member of the service.

Group processes, perhaps in part because of the modern demands of industry, and in part because of the emphasis on urban living, represent an inter-relatedness of school and community not seen in individual practices. The exodus from the farms to the city in the past several decades is bringing people into new and different relationships, intensifying and even thus aggravating the problems of present-day living. New patterns of behavior have to be learned by the erstwhile farm dwellers, some of whom find it most difficult to relinquish habits amassed over a lifetime of rural life. It is these pressing problems, among others, to which guidance workers must address themselves.

Because it is, perhaps, more a theory of inter-personal relationships than that of education per se, the group process involves direct emphasis upon common problems. Group living in the classroom provides pupil participation and shared learning. Because of this need for participation, group guidance is more effective when it proceeds along certain principles of action. Reed, for instance, believes the following five purposes to be "sufficiently inclusive" to cover the area of group guidance.

1. To afford an opportunity for the dissemination of information which is a worth-while addition to each person's storehouse of knowledge and upon which he may draw for making immediate or future decisions.
2. To afford an opportunity to get the point of view of the group, to understand its attitudes, reactions, thought processes, etc. Practical application of the principles of group psychology should result in a sort of *group inventory*, as useful for group guidance as is the personal inventory for counseling.
3. To afford an opportunity to resolve common problems through the pooling of experiences and opinions, to set up group standards, to develop attitudes agreed upon as desirable, to plan composite programs, and to promote horizontal cooperation.

4. To afford guidance in the reconciliation of different or conflicting viewpoints, interests, or policies. Attainment of objectives three and four requires modification of the viewpoints of some or all in the interest of teamwork. It also requires very astute leadership which is capable of guiding the development of skill in analysis of evidence and in thought processes.

5. To afford an opportunity to observe participants and to note behavior or responses which suggest the need of, or desire for, individual guidance.⁵

The Teacher in the Group Situation

In order to insure the most effective kind of group instruction and activity, the teacher (as group leader) should be as stable a personality as is possible. A basic source of frustration and irritation in the case of children is the unstable or maladjusted classroom teacher. There is ample evidence to indicate how, in their striving to overcome unpleasant experiences in the classroom, pupils will demonstrate hostile behavior at home and elsewhere outside the school.

It may be that the maladjusted teacher is, in many instances, a formerly rejected or abused child. Neglect and deprivation during childhood may result in erratic behavior during adulthood. Quite often the teacher may be mistreating pupils because he, too, had been mistreated earlier in his career. Unfortunately many such teachers have been unaware of the causes of their aberrant behavior. Whatever the reason for his own behavior, the neurotic or maladjusted teacher can do much damage to the psychological health of his pupils.

A teacher who has achieved psychological maturity has somehow learned to get along with himself as well as with others around him. He can live with others without serious friction, adjusting himself to the demands his class make upon him and tactfully influencing them to accede to his own program. Such a teacher or group leader is an adjusted personality who can compromise with his students without losing any of his own direction or self-respect.

Maladjustment in Teaching

The teacher is the central figure in the classroom. Upon his grasp and carry-through of the situation depends the success or failure of the group program. If he is oversevere or too lax the class will re-

⁵ A. Y. Reed, *Guidance and Personnel Services in Education* (Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1944), p. 226.

spond correspondingly. Discipline in the sense of pupil cooperation is an absolute "must" before real learning can take place. It is, perhaps, one of the few unpleasant aspects of teaching that it can provide an opportunity for domination over others. There are teachers who expect to dictate to their pupils what should or should not be done. Such dictatorial methods inevitably will cause tensions in the classroom which inhibit learning. A student functioning under duress is unlikely to learn much from his lessons.

The teacher who instills a sense of fear is hurting both the student and himself by his behavior. An activity completely overshadowed by the teacher's presence is not conducive to learning. Children whose own homes are free of irritations and difficulties may become seriously maladjusted in a classroom in which the teacher uses harsh and restrictive measures to maintain order. Such children may not only become psychologically disturbed in that particular class; they may, in some instances, develop a strong aversion to all schooling. The dominant teacher is quite often the maladjusted personality. There is no virtue to suppressing children. Genuine progress comes from children who feel they are being treated firmly but with consideration and justice.

Balanced Teaching. The ideal schoolroom is a place in which the child has the maximum opportunity to develop academically and as a person. It is obvious now that such goals are better realized in situations which neither pamper nor threaten the student. If the teacher, for example, makes the mistake of favoring a student or students to the point where initiative is stifled, he thereby impedes the learning of the entire class. Children react upon one another and favoritism is never, for long, a secret. The favored ones thus suffer from both sources. Their own problems are thrown out of focus and in addition they gain the enmity of their classmates. A situation in which the student faces his own problems and solves them to the best of his own ability should be the aim for everyone in the classroom.

The student who does not solve his own problems in one group will have a double burden to bear in a future group. He will be unprepared for the time when he must shoulder his own load and will even come to resent the teacher who favored him. Life presents a series of problems and the far-seeing instructor will early begin to prepare his charges to face up to these problems through their own efforts.

There often exists a desire on the part of the mature to ease the path of some of the weaker and perhaps less fortunate youngsters. But weaknesses are not corrected by favoritism. The most effective teach-

ing situation is one in which all pupils are treated with fairness and consideration. Additional help, of course, should be given when needed. But it must be understood that such help is given not in terms of favoritism but because it is actually needed. Insofar as it is possible each child should be challenged—and assisted whenever necessary—to the limits of his abilities. Weaknesses are eliminated most effectively through the child's own efforts, efforts which the teacher can, and should, direct in experiences calculated to improve the child's abilities. Torgerson and Adams put it this way:

Materials and techniques of instruction, if they are to be effective, must be geared to the learning needs of the children. These needs are related to children's interests, mental and educational maturity, physical handicaps, and personal-adjustment problems, as well as to their specific learning difficulties. *Early recognition of a problem . . . prevents more serious problems.*⁶

Teachers must therefore become sensitive to any behavior which reveals conflict and maladjustment. Lack of interest on the part of the child is often a sign that frustration exists. Unusual behavior needs to be recognized as an expression of some problem. Before the pupil can make any progress he must be unhampered by extreme difficulties.

Pupil-Teacher Rapport

We owe much to modern research, notably in psychology and sociology, for our present awareness of group living and its implications for learning. In the ideal group situation the teacher is a guide and confidante to the members, firm whenever necessary, but not a disciplinarian for its own sake. Such a teacher attempts to understand the child, as has been said, in both his strengths and weaknesses. He must by the same token be cognizant of his own emotional status, for if he is not careful, he may pass on to his charges his own feelings of insecurity and other like tensions. Bush indeed asserts that, "the classroom is the key unit in the school system. How well it functions is partly dependent upon the whole configuration of the moment and the historical development which preceded it, but the most potent element is the kind of leadership exercised by the teacher in each classroom."⁷

⁶ T. L. Torgerson and G. S. Adams, *Measurement and Evaluation for the Elementary-School Teacher* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1954), p. 13.

⁷ R. N. Bush, *The Teacher-Pupil Relationship* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1954), p. 11.

The competent teacher or group leader can stimulate confidence in the timid child and calm the impulsive one, by providing security for all in the group. Emotional balance and physical health of his own are an obligation which the teacher must seek to maintain. This is not to say that he has to constantly seek perfection for himself. It is rather to open for consideration the desirability of self-improvement on the part of the teacher.

Difficulties arise in the classroom as well as anywhere else and there are no simple solutions to them. Teaching remains an art, despite its reliance on scientific method. Attitudes, prejudices, ambitions, all these are present in the teacher as well as in anyone else. There are restraints upon the teacher's behavior which may tend to frustrate him. And it may not be denied that because of background problems, some pupils are outside of the teacher's direct help. Such problems will apparently always be present in the classroom. Nevertheless as Murray submits, "adjusted teachers can contribute more to the mental health of their pupils." Such teachers, he writes, "are able to focus their full intelligence and insight on the activities at hand; they can discover the children who need an extra dimension of love and care; they are secure enough to reach out for extra help."⁸

In the balanced classroom the teacher will understand that his charges are emotional as well as intellectual human beings who do not learn through rote alone. Therefore the teacher himself must be acquainted with some of the basic conditions which underlie the learning process. Miller and Dollard emphasize this need of awareness on the part of the teacher by writing that:

Human behavior which is widely felt to characterize man as a rational being, or as a member of a particular nation or social class, is acquired, rather than innate. To understand thoroughly any item of behavior—either in the social group or in the individual life—one must know the psychological principles involved in its learning and the social conditions under which this learning takes place.⁹

The teacher as instructor, guide, and confidante plays a significant role in the learning process. Guidance is an excellent means for maintaining those conditions necessary to the optimum development of the pupil. Further, the guidance function is also a means whereby the learning process is sharpened and refined.

⁸ C. E. Murray, "Mental Hygiene in the Day's Work," *Mental Hygiene*, Vol. 34 (1950), pp. 438-464.

⁹ N. E. Miller and J. Dollard, *Social Learning and Imitation* (New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1941), p. 1.

Approaches to Group Guidance

There are several proposed group approaches to guidance at the present time. Some of these approaches are directly concerned with the problem of the individual, others indirectly so. "Information giving," for example, is a means whereby the group, generally in a classroom situation, is made aware of certain facts regarding a subject of interest to the group. Another technique of group guidance is found in "multiple counseling" whereby students with common problems are counseled in a group situation. The various aspects of this approach will be reviewed in a later chapter on counseling.

Discussion of a subject among the group is another important means for developing the social skills so vital in today's inter-personal relations. Through sharing of a problem and mutual consent in facing it, individuals come to appreciate one another's viewpoints and the right to be heard.

Both formal and informal group activities will help promote the cause of guidance when planned in terms of a unified approach. Extracurricular activities offer an excellent basis for group guidance. Such informal affairs as dances, plays, intra-mural athletics, etc. have done much to promote comradery and goodwill among different people. Group approaches to guidance—while not yet on a par with individual guidance—do have the advantage of low cost and a less complicated administrative scheme. The group is also an excellent place to discuss future employment possibilities. To quote: "In group sessions, students have an opportunity to relate vocational problems to personality needs. Only when basic needs and values are verbalized and structured can test results and occupational information be used meaningfully."¹⁰

Audio-Visual Aids

Audio-visual aids are methods (and materials) which are primarily designed to enhance the learning process. Visual techniques are based upon the ancient principle that "one picture is worth ten thousand words." Auditory techniques, on the other hand, place major emphasis upon hearing and involve the use of simple rhythms, music, and the like. The classroom today, because of audio-visual aids, has become very "ear" and "eye" conscious.

¹⁰ E. L. Shostrom and L. M. Brammer, *The Dynamics of the Counseling Process*, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952), p. 50.

Children are learning to dance more and more by listening to rhythms. Teachers have come to use the "educational film" as a regular procedure of instruction. And to expedite such instruction large school systems have amassed whole libraries of filmed teaching guides, guides which have already proved invaluable in improving classroom instruction.

The advent of television has done much to re-vitalize instructional method. Medical schools, for example, are employing closed-circuit television channels extensively to demonstrate surgical techniques direct from the operating theatre. Whereas previously because of physical impediments (e.g., seating arrangements, inability to hear or see the surgeon, etc.) viewing an operation was difficult, through the use of television, students and practitioners are now able to see the surgeon's work clearly and profit accordingly.

The armed services, too, have come to regard television as a first-rate method for instructional as well as tactical purposes. Military maneuvers have been conducted which demonstrate the usefulness of television as a means of maintaining adequate communication channels between fighting groups and of transmitting commands. It is now possible to give many examples of the widespread use of television and film generally.

Dale, however, warns us, curiously enough, that the very "concreteness and specificity" of audio-visual aids may tend to make instruction mechanical and authoritarian if care is not exercised in their use. But as he hastens to add, "no such dangers are likely to occur with a teacher who understands his role as that of guide and counselor. . . . He will use audio-visual materials properly because he appreciates their great value in making the learning experience of his pupils more meaningful and thus better remembered."¹¹

Audio-visual aids are based upon the assumption that all our senses are the most effective means we possess for apprehending the world in which we live. There is, to be exact, no other means for perceiving the people and events which are external to us. Verbalisms do tend to become stale and unappealing to the student, particularly when constantly used. Pictures give an impression of motion or animation and when presented meaningfully with other subject material are an unparalleled guidance technique.

It must be emphasized, however, that the pupil does not learn by just "hearing" or "seeing" materials of instruction. He learns by blending all his perceptions together in a meaningful pattern. Used

¹¹ E. Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1946), p. 4.

correctly audio-visual techniques can do much to facilitate and enhance the learning process.

Exploratory Activities: Field Work

Exploratory activities, on the educational scene, are those activities arranged by the school and undertaken for specific learning purposes. They take place in the field, so to speak, since community institutions make up the bulk of places visited (e.g., libraries, museums, fire stations, etc.). In citing the value of such exploratory activities Hildreth writes that:

. . . among the advantages that result from educational trips are the vividness of personal experience ("being on the ground"), the opportunity to visualize action more effectively by being able to place it in its actual setting, and the opportunity to learn about things (historical, social, or industrial) that are peculiar to or characteristic of the local scene and not available in textbooks.¹²

Exploratory experiences effectively arranged permit the pupils to visit and explore places in their original settings. What the textbooks describe, for example, about the process of baking bread may actually be seen in operation through a visit to the bakery by the student. Some industries have now delegated special personnel to work with classroom teachers in demonstrating the actual operations which are involved in the manufacture of various products used in the American home.

Through direct contact with people performing their different tasks, the student, it is hoped, will grow in his own comprehension of the workaday world into which he will enter sometime in the future. Watching and studying real-life activities presents the individual with a more concrete basis for his abstract materials. Learning in the school is a matter of organized experiences. Exploratory activities allow students a maximum opportunity for such experiences.

A word of caution should be added here. Too often exploratory trips have not only failed of their purpose, but resulted in confusion. Children who are to visit a library, for example, must be carefully briefed beforehand about the uses and purposes of a library. The reasons for such a trip should be discussed by the teacher with his pupils in order that they understand what it is they intend to do. To

¹² G. Hildreth, *Child Growth Through Education* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1948), p. 270.

facilitate such discussion, it is obvious that the teacher, himself, be conversant with the details of the proposed excursion.

Above all other considerations, the trip will have to be tied in with the pupil's own background and understanding. There is little use in visiting a physics laboratory if the students know little or nothing about the subject. Interest and motivation must be carefully integrated with the trip. The values which pupils derive from trips depend on the preparatory and follow-up work done. Such preliminary planning helps contribute to the success of all exploratory activities.

Excursions are also useful in implementing a program for better school-community relations. Trips bring the students right into the community's institutions where he can observe and be observed. By the same token, cooperation between school and community through arranging details of the trip helps carry the problems of both out into the open for inspection. Again, by introducing the pupil firsthand, as it were, to the various conditions of employment as they actually are, he thereby becomes better able to weigh the advantages of different kinds of occupations.

Orientation Programs

The purpose of the orientation program is to help each person feel at home in a new surrounding or activity by helping him to understand the traditions, rules, and offerings of the school and its activities. Orientation, therefore, begins when the parent first takes Billy to kindergarten or first grade and continues until he is established on a job, and even later into retirement. More specifically, orientation programs should be emphasized during the last term of a pupil's present educational program and during the first term of a new program. For example, the sixth grader should be prepared for junior high school and assisted to feel at home as he enters the new school. This same help should continue in his making the adjustment from junior to senior high school, and so on to college and a job.

Orientation should also be provided for each individual moving into the school during the term, as he moves into the new class, as he returns from a long absence, and after an upset of regular life by tragic family circumstances. A group orientation program is very helpful as a preparation for individual counseling.

Responsibility for the orientation program is generally a function of the guidance committee, composed of counselors, administrators, and teachers. Cooperative action should be taken in establishing objec-

tives, planning general procedures, assigning responsibilities, and arranging dates and places. Related schools and even parent groups may be brought into action. Where specific meetings are called, time budgets should be made and check lists of activities proposed.

To facilitate the orientation of pupils new to a school, the administrators within the district, and even among several districts which may transfer pupils, should have established channels for transfer of cumulative records. Where records are complete and available, it is much easier to adapt programs to the needs of the pupils.

Possible activities to be included in orientation programs are:

1. Visitation to sending schools by counselors for purposes of:
 - a. Holding get-acquainted interviews with each pupil.
 - b. Describing school curricula, and registration for courses for following year.
 - c. Describing extracurricular activities.
 - d. Displaying school publications.
 - e. Testing and collecting pupil data.
 - f. Explaining pupil personnel services in receiving school.
2. Visit to receiving schools by incoming pupils where they follow typical schedules, take tests, sit in assemblies, and receive instruction about curricula.
3. Visit to homes by counselors and teachers to gather data, make a follow-up, or disseminate information.
4. Holding exercises at the opening of school, including freshmen days or weeks, etc.
5. Providing special assistance to late enrollees and transfer pupils.
6. Presenting special discussions or programs for parents of incoming pupils. At the lower level this may be a series of sessions for parents and pre-school children. Nursery schools also serve this function.

After each orientation program a follow-up or evaluation session should be held with adequate memoranda prepared for use by anyone directing that program at a later time.

The Home-room Program. The elementary school offers a natural facility for providing continuous orientation. The secondary schools with their departmentalized plans are not so fortunate. Some other arrangements must be made to provide a "school home" for the secondary school pupils. Three plans have been employed: core-curriculums, home-rooms, and guidance class, such as a senior problems class. The core-curriculum was discussed in Chapter 8, p. 233;

the latter two plans will be considered here as means of continuous orientation services.

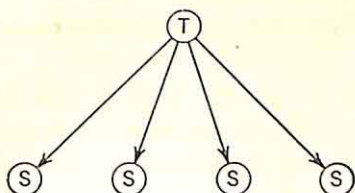
Theoretically, the home-room program seems the logical way for providing conditions where one teacher could become better acquainted with each pupil, observe his progress, be aware of his problems, and guide him through his high school career. It has, however, not fulfilled its expectations in practice. Lack of time to do little more than take care of the administrative details of reading the bulletins, etc., seems to be an important reason why. There is also ample indication that many teachers are not qualified as guidance workers and so are unable to perform the guidance functions for which the home-room was intended. It is only when the home-room is utilized as a full guidance period where a qualified teacher can and desires to provide group orientation and individual assistance that this program is workable.

The Senior and Junior Problems Courses. While the senior problems course has been in widespread usage over the past two decades, there has recently developed a program which emphasizes a junior problems course for ninth or tenth graders. Such typical problems as dating, parent relationships, consumer education, and so forth have been problems discussed in these problem courses. It is usually wiser for the junior class to concentrate its efforts on educational adaptation and related problems of adjustment of early adolescents, and for the senior class to emphasize post-high-school problems, i.e., how to get a job, be admitted to a college, or face the realities of early marriage.

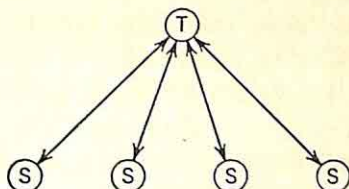
Group Discussions

The pupils within a classroom are not a group because they have been collected in one place, they become a group by virtue of common goals and interests. As they define common goals, develop ways of cooperatively working and playing together, and evaluate their progress they establish their unity as a group. As maturity develops, positive action and a feeling of responsibility for one another as members of the same group begin to develop. Whenever the teacher has encouraged such group activity, class morale and achievement usually have soared.

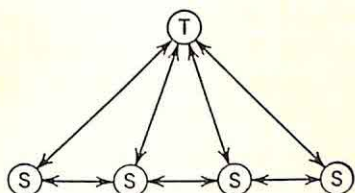
Communication. A primary element of the group is verbal interaction. Such communication is broader than merely having the



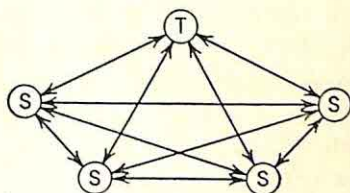
1. Least effective. The teacher attempts to maintain one-way communication with individual students.



2. More effective. The teacher tries to develop two-way communication with individual students.



3. Even more effective. The teacher maintains two-way communication with individual students and also permits some communication among students on a rather formal basis.



4. Most effective. The teacher becomes a member of the group and permits two-way communication among all members of the group, including himself.

Fig. 10-1. Various Types of Communicative Relationships between Teachers and Students, in Order of their Effectiveness. (After Lindgren.¹³)

teacher use appropriate words and numbers to communicate certain ideas. This communication is dependent upon a real feeling of freedom to express ideas in a mutual give-and-take with the teacher and the other pupils in the classroom. Lindgren¹³ has graphically presented this relationship (see Fig. 10-1).

Buzz Sessions. To overcome the problem of having a few students dominate a discussion or to introduce a topic and “warm up” the group, the buzz session has been found to be a useful device. The procedure is rather simple. The teacher writes a provocative question on the board (Are you prejudiced against your neighbors? Should we encourage foreign aid? etc.) and then divides the class into several groups of five or six people to discuss these questions. Each group is asked to develop the main issues of the problem during a limited five-minute discussion. Someone from each group is appointed to report the results.

¹³ H. C. Lindgren, *Educational Psychology in the Classroom* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1956), p. 266.

At the end of the five-minute period the class is reconvened and each group reports. The skillful discussion leader can then more easily encourage each individual to share in the general discussion. It is important at the end of the period to have the teacher or group leader summarize the basic points of the total discussion.

Role-Playing. Another interesting way to provide group interaction and put an abstract problem on a personal problem-solving basis is by means of role-playing, or sociodrama. The variety of techniques employed indicates its extent of use in almost any human relationship. Essentially role-playing is spontaneous dramatizing or acting-out of a problem, a personality, or a situation. An example would be that of a senior problems class discussing how to get a job. Arrangements are made for one to play the role of an applicant and another to enact the role of an interviewer. Even more complex situations may then be developed.

For example, in one situation a first-grade boy was making a visit to the dentist. Reactions gathered from sisters and brothers, playmates, and others warned the boy against this awesome situation. However, during the visit the dentist gave the youngster a mirror, cotton pads, and other inexpensive items, after which the boy was invited to play the role of the dentist, practicing on his parent. While he practiced the father explained certain factors of dentistry, etc. Interestingly enough, the boy has since not objected to visiting the dentist and has persisted after four years in wishing to become a dentist.

Role-playing should be followed by discussion in which the students are helped to understand the meaning of the situation. One variation of role-playing is that of reading part of a story or describing a situation and then inviting the class or group to solve the problem-story.

General Principles of Group Guidance. Some general principles governing group guidance, as applied to the instructive group-approach, were developed by the National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers at their 1957 workshop in Detroit. Following is a summary of their conclusions:

1. Group-guidance procedures are only a *part* of the whole guidance program.
2. An effective group procedure is based on felt needs of students.
3. Group guidance utilizes the fact that peers influence one another.
4. Group-guidance procedures should be characterized by a permissive atmosphere, as far as possible.

5. Group-guidance procedures should follow carefully validated research data on child growth and development.

6. Group-guidance procedures share the responsibility for providing common elements of environment for the group.

7. Group-guidance procedures should *lead into* and should strengthen counseling services.

8. Counseling and inter-personal influences are mutually important to the group-guidance program.

9. Group-guidance procedures require careful preparation on the part of any individuals assigned responsibility for them.

10. Group-guidance procedures require careful preparation on the part of staff and administrators in advance of their initiation.

Summary

Effective group guidance would immeasurably lighten the burden of schools struggling with mass education. Group practices properly conducted could function as a vital part of the mental-hygiene program and make guidance itself a routine matter in the school. Much remains to be done, however, before group guidance can begin to receive its fair share of attention and organization. For the present such practices as group processes, exploratory trips, information services, and the like must be expanded and enriched. The student who is prepared for inter-personal relationships, who is armed with knowledge of the world around him, stands a better chance of succeeding as a citizen. Our society is now much too complex to permit us the luxury of leaving such matters to chance. Understanding the techniques of planned group experiences has become necessary for the social and emotional adjustment of the learner.

Suggested Problems

1. Plan a trip for a group of students to some local industry or place of historical significance. In accordance with the age level you have selected, consider all of the educational and guidance opportunities possible and list a number of both general and specific objectives which you expect to accomplish.

2. What problems does a youngster encounter on entering junior high school which he would not have experienced on the elementary level?

What activities might be included in an orientation program to help him adjust to this new setting?

3. Outline a plan of study for a ninth-grade orientation class including a six-week unit on vocational guidance.
4. Outline a plan of study for a senior problems class.
5. Set up a questionnaire which could be used in your school to find out how extensive is the student participation in cocurricular activities.
6. What are the comparative values of group guidance as opposed to individual counseling?

Suggested Readings

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Part IV

*Helping
Development
and
Adjustment
through
Counseling*

Chapter 11

Basic Concepts in Counseling

Counseling is the heart of the guidance program. And because it is so important three chapters have been devoted to exploring its implications. This present chapter represents an effort to analyze those concepts generally considered basic to the counseling function itself. The next chapter will treat counseling in its applied form as a technique of guidance; Chapter 13 relates it to occupational information. Counseling is both a goal-inspired process and a specific means for consummating this goal. This view of counseling serves as the theme for the entire text.

Counseling Generally Considered

In guidance as elsewhere counseling has assumed new dimensions and responsibilities. In the school, for instance, counseling now is regarded as the purposeful understanding and assistance given the pupil so that he is better able to handle his own problems. Any counseling is, first of all, a process of sharing, of mutual help and consideration engaged in by two or more people. Counseling may, therefore, be defined as *a person-to-person process in which one person is helped by another to increase in understanding and ability to meet his problems.* This definition, or, rather, description, of the counseling

process suggests that such a process is much more than "advice-giving," no matter how well intended this device may be. Nor is it, or can it be, a mere exchange of confidences. For effectiveness counseling must be organized on a real give-and-take basis upon which counselor and counselee (or client) meet in an atmosphere of mutual trust and understanding.

Counseling has developed comparatively late as a specialized area. For untold years it has been a kind of subsidiary function of other professions. The physician, the teacher, and the minister are, and have been, counselors by the inherent nature of their respective areas of endeavor. It needs to be pointed out at this time that not every person will be able to function effectively as a counselor. And there is little possibility that anything can be done about making everyone an expert—despite the fact that so many of us inevitably assume the role of counselor at one time or another. The important lesson to remember is that too often counseling has been self-defeating through ineptitude. Such counseling, instead of helping the individual, actually has interfered with his development. In the classroom it now is realized that the teacher must have some knowledge of the functions of counseling as well as his own limitations in this area. Quite often the latter consideration is more important than the first. Further on this same score, the teacher has to find out when and how to call upon the specialist in counseling whenever such services are available.

It must be remembered, too, that counseling, despite its primary role, is but a service of guidance and not the whole program itself. Considered thus, counseling by the counselor, for example, becomes a major tool for helping the pupil meet his problems, but not the only one available to him.

The Elements in the Counseling Process

Counseling as defined must be of service to as wide a range of individuals as is possible. Haphazard counseling is too often self-defeating because it confuses the person needing help. Carefully worked out or systematic counseling procedures at least have certain principles and goals by which to orient the client as well as the counselor. Organized counseling practices have a much better chance to help the individual to: (1) increase in knowledge of self; (2) solve immediate problems; (3) reduce tensions resulting from frustrations, anxieties, etc.; and (4) improve in the skills and knowledge required to solve his problems.

The counselor remains the central figure in the appraisal of personal problems. Individuals must be interviewed in order to derive the necessary data required concerning both their backgrounds and present difficulties. To adequately structure a conference situation so that the client (or clients) will receive the maximum aid from counseling is a difficult and complex task.¹ Any counseling situation includes such involved factors as the inter-action of client and counselor, the client's interests and background, the frame of reference of the counselor himself, and the general cultural environment, which so influences all our behavior. Hence the need for careful planning and execution in counseling. Mathewson sums up the basic elements which appear consistently in all counseling situations as follows:

1. Personal communication between client and counselor in a professionally controlled or guided situation.
2. Appraisal and understanding of the individual, and of environmental aspects of the problem-situation and its possible outcomes.
3. Evaluation and correlation of pertinent personal and non-personal factors in the problem-situation.
4. Adjustive, orientational, or developmental aid to the individual through conveyance of information; interpretation of data; provision of the means, or facility, for self-appraisal and clarification of motives and values; referral to environmental opportunity, or other modes of assistance.²

Counseling for All. Counseling in the school is mainly concerned with the problems of normal individuals who are seeking or who stand in need of help. Too often in the past writers have tended to overemphasize the clinical aspects of counseling at the expense of its more general aspects. All pupils have problems. School counseling will, it is true, be very much concerned with the extreme cases of maladjustment, but this concern will be centralized in recognition of such cases and cooperation with the specialized help called in to treat them.

The need at present is for the improvement of counseling methods within the school, which, while not specialized in the strict sense of

¹ In a seminar devoted to investigating aspects of counseling during World War II, Jaqua wrote that the hope was prevalent that "... something might be done to elevate the profession of counseling to lift it from the plane of random advising, which anyone can do who is 'fond of people,' into the realm of an exacting professional task requiring expert training and mature judgment." E. J. Jaqua *The Training of Vocational Counselors* (Washington: Bureau of Training, War Manpower Commission, 1944), p. 9.

² R. H. Mathewson, *Guidance Policies and Practices*, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955), p. 194.

the term, can yet be effective in meeting everyday problems. The teacher can thus work with counseling experts to meet the needs of all his pupils. Robinson states the case as follows:

Students show a wide range of problems and needs. Thus many are marginally adjusted or skilled, i.e., almost happy or not quite as effective as they would like. These may represent skill deficiencies, religious worries, social problems, vocational indecisions, personal anxieties, health problems, financial worries, problems of emancipation from home, etc. These problems are numerically frequent and respond readily to counseling help; furthermore, early treatment of small problems may prevent the later development of severe maladjustments Development of skill in counseling with these many types of individuals and for these different purposes is important if a student counselor is to be fully effective.³

Counseling: A Socially Inter-related Process

Counseling rests upon an over-all approach to the problems of the individual. Which is to say, that a pupil is also the child of parents who raise him and also influence his behavior. A pupil's home problems for this reason may not be arbitrarily separated from his academic work. The welfare of the individual rests upon the mutual cooperation of all those involved in his upbringing. This mutuality of interests, however, raises an important issue, namely, the adequate recognition of the social factors shaping the individual's life. Bottrell, for example, writes that, "I realize that counseling and guidance focus on the individual; what I am pleading for is recognition that the individual always exists in a social setting, is shaped terrifically by his social contexts, and will continue so to be shaped."⁴

On the other hand, too great an emphasis on the group out of which the child derives his impetus is also to be avoided. Respect for the individual is basic to belief in democracy but living in a democracy demands a certain allegiance and even surrender of rights and self to the group. The point which needs to be made is that the "answer seems to lie in a conscious and concerted effort on the part of . . . teachers and counselors to avoid the extreme of either position, to attempt to maintain a healthy balance between development of the individual and preparation for group living."⁵

³ F. P. Robinson, *Principles and Procedures in Student Counseling* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950), pp. 4-5.

⁴ Quoted in M. D. Hardee (Ed.), *Counseling and Guidance in General Education* (Yonkers-On-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1955), p. 9.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

Acceptance in Counseling Relationship. The counseling situation should be so organized that the client will make his contribution to it as well as the counselor. *To accomplish this purpose the counselor has to demonstrate in voice and gesture that he accepts fully the client as a worthwhile person who has genuine problems which the two can solve together.*

The counselor has to feel a real interest in the client since there is no substitute for sincerity. People are quick to sense a lack of concern with their problems. However, while the client must feel himself accepted by the counselor, the degree of acceptance must emerge out of the counseling situation itself. Since counseling is in large measure an art, the degree of "warmth" in the interview will depend upon the needs of the individual as the counselor appreciates the needs involved. Bordin discusses this aspect of counseling as follows:

Warmth is related both to objectivity and to involvement. Warmth refers to involvement in so far as the latter term is used to include an ability to empathize and to give oneself the freedom to express feeling. Warmth refers to objectivity to the extent to which it includes the maintenance of a clear differentiation from the client. But warmth goes beyond objectivity and involvement. It refers to a kind of spontaneity in interpersonal relationships which makes the relationship "real" for the . . . client.⁶

The development of self-direction through counseling is an emotional as well as an intellectual problem. Such self-direction does not arise from the directions of the counselor, no matter how well meant these are. It comes from the client's realizing his own responsibility for his conduct and from his accepting this responsibility. When warmth is lacking in the counseling situation it is often because the counselor has not sensed the nature of the client's problems. Too often as the counselor begins to press for a conclusion he tends to lose sight of the fact that the counselee has a contribution to make which may be equally as valuable as that planned by the person attempting to help him. True, the counselor needs to help give direction but there is also a more valid need for the contribution of the client. In the school, especially, counseling takes on a double responsibility: one, to help all pupils grow and the other, to help those with problems. If there is to be adequate pupil growth along desired lines, there must be guidance by persons who realize that every pupil will make his own contribution if the conditions are right. Counselors in the school at present do not have enough time for proper counseling. The paucity

⁶ E. S. Bordin, *Psychological Counseling* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955), p. 175.

of time does not lend itself to arranging counseling situations which give the pupil opportunity to make his own contribution. Hence the overemphasis on direction by the counselor. But within the limits permitted him, the counselor must attempt to encourage initiative and work on the part of the client.

The Goals of Counseling

The concept of adjustment has come under sharp attack in recent times. It has been said that the very term adjustment is itself ambiguous and contradictory. On the one hand the child is asked to adjust to the group in order to be accepted and popular. At the same time the goal is for him to develop as an individual personality. How can he be genuine in feeling and original in expression if he is to conform to the group. Conformity, which some have equated with adjustment, is not conducive towards independent judgment.

The crux of the question appears to be that of adjustment to the group without losing one's individuality. Unfortunately a lack of precise knowledge of group processes still obscures the major issues and tends to make some individuals confused, insecure, and distrustful.

In the schools, children are asked to become efficient and able to compete with each other energetically, even aggressively. Yet simultaneously they are taught courtesy, respect for the rights of others, and the like aspects of group living. Such seeming contradictions have caused many children to become emotionally disturbed.

To begin with, few would now deny that conformity to group standards has become a literal necessity. With that in mind the problem becomes clear enough. How to preserve individuality in the face of the necessary conformity. *Adjustment in terms of a happy balance between restraint and expression is what guidance can and should offer.* Adjustment has to be defined in terms of the goals set up by a democratic society.

Adjustment still remains a key issue in the counseling process, but it is realized now that the individual is, in a sense, never completely adjusted, since complete adjustment would mean a cessation of activity. Counseling, therefore, must be regarded as a *dynamic* process in which the individual is helped to *develop* in terms of changing conditions.

Every individual needs some help at different times in his development. Adolescence, for example, quite often leaves the individual

confused, even helpless, because of the abrupt changes which take place during this period. The need for sympathy and understanding during adolescence is especially critical. Counseling can do much to help tide the adolescent over these trying years. Many youngsters have suffered just because they never received any counseling during their adolescent period. It is quite possible a great number of delinquents are people who also received little or no sympathy when they needed it most.

Every stage of life has its particular problems, hence the need for continuity in counseling. Helping the person continuously to meet these problems is the function of counseling. The philosopher William James characterized human thinking as a "stream of consciousness," a viewpoint which emphasizes the continuity of life.

The individual's thinking is constantly engaged with the problems of living, as James also indicated. When the individual's thinking becomes confused or when he even becomes incapable of doing any rational thinking at all, it is evident that outside help, say, in the form of counseling is not only necessary but urgent. The person who suffers difficulty in thinking for himself needs to be helped in developing insight into his problems. Which is to say, that through counseling it is hoped that the individual will gain insight enough to be able to himself adequately face his problems. The purpose of such counseling is not to serve as a kind of crutch but rather give to the pupil such help as he will need to act for himself in situations which tend to frustrate him. For example, it is not now considered sufficient to find future jobs for the pupil; what is, perhaps, even more important is to find a job which he can suitably fill, in terms of emotional balance as well as of skill or intellectual attainment.

Necessity for Social Skills. It is now well known by personnel people as well as others that mere proficiency at a given task—vital though such proficiency may be—is not enough. The individual, no matter what his area of endeavor may be, will have to understand how to get along with his fellows and how to meet the various problems which arise out of this personal inter-relationship. Modern industry is based upon such inter-relationships and the recognition of their importance is noted in the time and attention now given to the problem. Thousands of work-hours have been lost not because of the lack of know-how at the job but because workers found it difficult, even impossible in many cases, to adjust in terms of personal relations with their fellows.

Counseling as a means of improving social adjustment is based not only upon the needs of the individual but upon those of his community. The need for good rapport between counselor and community is thus obvious. Community living in the modern era requires not only efficient workers but citizens who are also well-adjusted members of the community. The problems of adjustment themselves require more airing on the part of both school and community. Counseling is thus not only a means by which, for example, in vocational advising, suitable jobs are chosen but also a way whereby the individual is guided towards balanced living. That the counselor, in fact, is not able to do effective vocational counseling without taking into consideration such personal factors as home situation, health conditions, and the like is pointed out in the following statement by two writers in the area. "The client," Blum and Balinsky write, "in discussing his vocational plan will, if allowed by the counselor, talk of his finances, his aspirations, his failures and successes, his health, even his fears and personal involvements. The vocational counselor cannot refuse to listen to such discussions or consider those matters as irrelevant to the vocational problems presented."⁷

Counseling presents a real challenge to the counselor, whoever he may be. It is obvious from the above that no one technique or attitude about counseling will suffice. The counseling situation must indeed be dynamic and flexible with the particular needs of the client determining the procedures to be followed. No one is able to divest himself thoroughly of certain prejudices, but such personal beliefs must be kept to a minimum in appraising the difficulties and possible solutions. A broad and sympathetic outlook is a "must" for the counselor.

Resolution of Conflict. Counseling, along with all other guidance techniques, is based upon the principle that individuals will need some outside help in order to solve their problems. Much of the client's problems emerge from his inability to resolve the conflict which comes from merely meeting one's problems. All of us are in conflict some time or another. That is, we are striving to overcome one obstacle or another in our attempt to live a balanced life. Inability to resolve such conflict, however, tends to disorient the individual and leave him helpless and confused.

Counseling can do much to help the individual find "new paths" along which to move toward adjustment. People who undergo too

⁷ M. L. Blum and B. Balinsky, *Counseling and Psychology* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951), p. 92.

much conflict obviously are in need of assistance. Some sociologists,⁸ in fact, see conflict as the contributing cause of maladjustment. In the normal person a balance is maintained which tends towards adequate adjustment. While it is true that there are always conflicts in maintaining adjustment, the normal person makes these adjustments more easily. Fortunately, most of the time, as we have seen in the chapter on personality development, the individual possesses resources (defense mechanisms) to resolve his difficulties. But for the person who is overwhelmed, so to speak, there is real danger of neurosis or psychosis. As Woodruff writes, the individual who fails to maintain a proper balance "... finds himself pushed toward acts that violate his own personal standards, or paths that seem to him to be destructive of his highly cherished values. Either of these experiences will disturb him deeply, leaving either a feeling of guilt, or a feeling that his very self is being threatened."⁹

Ordinarily, a teacher or a parent can help the individual meet his problem. When, however, the situation becomes too involved with respect to conflict, specialized help must be called in. Counseling can function in two ways in this problem: (1) help the individual meet his problems more effectively through understanding and sympathy; and (2) help prevent further maladjustment by early recognition of undue conflict on the part of the individual. The teacher is thus in an unexcelled position as regards the detection of problems that call for different levels of help. Unless she uses an organized approach to counseling, however, she will be fairly certain to overlook many of the symptoms which indicate maladjustment. The perceptive teacher, however, can do a great deal through establishing the kind of environment which keeps tension at a minimum and encourages self-discipline in the face of conflict. From a leading textbook in the field of educational psychology we derive the following apropos to our own discussion.

... a well-adjusted person is one who is efficient and happy in a reasonably satisfactory environment. Not only must a person be in an environment which enables him to satisfy his basic needs satisfactorily, and be able to manage his life so that the satisfaction of one need does not make the satisfaction of another impossible, but also he must satisfy his needs in such a way as to avoid interfering with the fulfillment of the legitimate needs of others. In short, the well-adjusted person is one whose needs and satisfac-

⁸ See, for example, L. L. Bernard, *An Introduction to Social Psychology* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1926). Also, G. Simmel, *Conflict* (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1955), transl. by K. Y. Wolff.

⁹ A. D. Woodruff, *The Psychology of Teaching* (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1951), p. 590.

tions in life are integrated with a sense of social feeling and an acceptance of social responsibility.¹⁰

Self-Expression

The opportunity for expression appears as an essential part of man's natural feelings. It is rooted in man's need to give vent to his feelings. Even the animals express themselves even if in sounds unintelligible to man. Whereas the animal's expression is reflexive the human being uses a more advanced form of telling the world about himself. Expression is a means of communication between people, whether it is done through the play of a child or verbalizations of an adolescent. The development of expression certainly depends upon social stimulation and the freedom to spread the ideas resulting from such stimulation.

In its mental-health aspects self-expression is a means for the individual to reveal not only his hopes and ambitions but his disappointments as well.

For the individual self-expression serves as an opportunity to explore one's problems. For society such expression has afforded a means of coming to know how its members think, of crystallizing this knowledge, and finally of creating a better common understanding.

Students, for example, whose backgrounds have been meager, in expressing themselves, have a chance to reveal their need for absorbing interests. An observant teacher or counselor can often introduce such pupils to those experiences which help bring a sense of personal worth as well as a feeling of accomplishment.

The human being requires some sense of security, some acceptance of himself by others of his kind. Self-expression presents a most effective means for the individual of acquiring such security and acceptance on the part of others. Unless a person is allowed to present his side of the case, so to speak, all judgments of him must be arbitrary. While some may argue that the individual is not the best judge of his own behavior, it is also true that to "know oneself" has often proved a step towards progress in adjustment. Most therapeutic efforts in the area of mental health are geared towards this self-enlightenment.

Insight into Motivations. Again, in the counseling situation, self-expression is not only a way by which the client gives vent to his

¹⁰ A. I. Gates, *Educational Psychology* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1949), p. 617.

innermost thoughts and feelings; it also offers the counselor a definite clue to his (the client's) problems. A counselor should know not only why an individual exhibits aggressive impulses but how he goes about mastering these same impulses. Self-expression may often reveal such characteristic defenses as rationalization, compensation, projection, etc. Such knowledge can help augment the counselor's knowledge of the client's self-esteem as well as his self-acceptance.

The Self-Concept. Any judgments of self-expression have to be measured in terms of the individual's own frame of reference, viz., his perception of the external world and of his relation to this world. For that which the client expresses in the counseling situation is the mirror—quite often a “flawed” one—of this perception. Hence the need to understand why, for example, life is for some a “joyous experience” and for others a place of gloom. The way in which one feels about life because of a certain background has been colorfully expressed by Samuel Butler, who wrote that:

There's a dark lantern of the spirit,
Which none see by but those who bear it,
And hag themselves with apparitions,
Find racks for their own minds, and vaunt
of their own misery and want.

All of us are no doubt familiar with those who as Butler put it, “Find racks for their own minds,” despite enjoying circumstances which in others would call for thanksgiving. And conversely, there are those others, who, despite the most adverse circumstances, still are able to maintain a cheerful outlook upon the world. All of this points up the need to know as much as possible concerning the individual and his own unique way of perceiving this world. The optimist and pessimist are both the products of this perception. In expressing himself the client often makes clear why he feels the way he does not only about himself but about others with whom he comes into contact.

Counselor Limitations in Providing Self-Help

It has become increasingly clear that maladjusted children or adults with problems can not be adjusted to their environment according to some magic formula. The trend in counseling is now tending toward an older dictum of therapy, “when in doubt, abstain.” This would imply that each individual who comes to the counselor must eventu-

ally solve his own problems a view that has been heavily underscored in clinical experiences. When working with maladjusted individuals the perceptive counselor realizes that often he will be able to contribute most by providing just patience and understanding, according to the individual needs of each client.

A counselor, it is only too true, no matter how competent he may be, can not become a substitute for the "self" of the client. Nor can he make decisions for him. Each person is the "center of his own little universe" to paraphrase the philosophers, and this center is inviolate. The counselor, then, provides an environment conducive to self-help. He can only assist the counselee through the establishment of helpful ways to expedite the latter's own progress. Progress, in the final analysis, must depend upon the individual himself.

This new picture of the client as a person in his own right replaces the older view that he is someone who is helpless by himself. It is apparent now that the counselor can not improve anyone's condition by *doing something for him*. The counselor can not make his decisions for the client, nor can he automatically satisfy his need. Counselors now working with disturbed individuals are driving home the point that help must come primarily from within and not from without. The Pepinskys describe this view of counseling as follows:

It is crucial to stress the point that the function of the interaction between the counselor and the client is to facilitate changes in the behavior of the client. Furthermore, this purpose must be understood and accepted by both participants in the counseling process. Both client and counselor must recognize, too, that the change desired and worked for is more than change in how the client talks in the interview, but is a change in what the client does outside the interview, and will be able to do, after his contacts with the counselor are terminated.¹¹

Thus, this facilitative service to be successful and enduring requires a high quality of understanding and skill.

The Influence of Psychoanalysis on Counseling

"Depth" psychology, upon which many important aspects of counseling are based (particularly most concepts of treatment), is largely an outgrowth of the work of Sigmund Freud. So noted a movement

¹¹ H. B. Pepinsky and P. N. Pepinsky, *Counseling—Theory and Practice* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954), p. 173.

as is *psychoanalysis* would require volumes if it were given proper consideration.

For present purposes, it will suffice to point up the emphasis upon early childhood experiences which has resulted from Freud's thinking. Depth psychology, which draws its meaning from psychoanalysis, measures behavior largely in terms of the kinds of experiences which the individual encountered during his earliest years of life. Psychoanalysis is a therapeutic approach and does not directly concern us here. What is important is that Freud saw behavior motivated not only by conscious drives but by "unconscious" ones.

Thus, for example, an individual deprived of love during childhood acts differently from one who had such security and affection. This means that in Freud's view the origins of behavior (whether normal or neurotic) emerge from the early environment and from hereditary influences—Freud did not deny the influence of heredity.

Because of such thinking on the subject depth psychologists measure responses in terms of the "patterns" revealed by say the Rorschach Test, the MMPI, or like techniques, instruments of depth psychology.¹² In other words, a counselor who bases his procedures on depth psychology considers responses "not as they seem," but rather as indications or manifestations of some "inner structure" of experience, a structure formed by early experiences.

Freud's view of emotional imbalance as emerging from experience has indeed done much to break down the barriers between normal and abnormal behavior. Therapists who use depth psychology focus their attention upon observation and analysis of the individual's responses not in terms of his overt behavior but of the factors assumed underlying this behavior.

Such an approach, as we shall presently see in the discussion on non-directive technique, has opened up the boundaries of counseling. For it is obvious that if one considers neuroses, for example, as based upon the genetical constitution, he will be severely limited in his approach to the problem. Here again perspective is needed since it is possible to overemphasize early childhood experiences at the expense of equally important considerations (e.g., effect of present experiences, social relationships, etc.). That is why so many in counseling have now espoused the eclectic approach, of which more will be written later. For the present it should be enough to say that counseling is indebted to the originality and foresight of the founder of psychoanalysis, Sigmund Freud.

¹² See Chapter 7.

Client-Centered Therapy

Because of its rise to prominence in recent years some attention must be given here to the method of *client-centered* or *non-directive* counseling. Such counseling, according to Professor Carl Rogers of the University of Wisconsin, who has done so much to exploit its uses, is considered a means (therapeutic in intent) which permits the individual to more fully explore and to solve his own problems.

This "client-centered" approach does allow the individual full expression, in fact, insists upon it. Such an approach, by its very nature, assumes that the person with problems is genuinely seeking ways to help himself. From this it follows that the primary obligation of the counselor is to augment means for this self-help. The counselor is a "catalytic agent" causing a change on the part of the client but not entering into this change in the orthodox counseling sense.

According to Rogers, the counselor proceeds on the belief that the person he is attempting to help is basically responsible for himself, and, further, is willing to accept this responsibility. In other words, Rogers states that one of six conditions of counseling is the principle that the counselor should rely upon the drive of the client to be mature, productive, independent, and well adjusted and not upon his own powers of therapy.¹³

Again, according to Rogers,¹⁴ the counselor (as therapist) must be able to enter into an intensely personal and subjective relationship with his client. This would seem to mean that the counselor would appreciate the client's worth and be able to fully empathize with him. On the client's part, writes Rogers, this kind of therapy:

. . . has meant an exploration of increasingly strange and unknown and dangerous feelings in himself; the exploration proving possible only because he is gradually realizing that he is accepted unconditionally. Thus he becomes acquainted with elements of his experience which have in the past been denied to awareness as too threatening, too damaging to the structure of the self. He finds himself experiencing those feelings fully, completely, in the relationship, so that for the moment he *is* his fear, or his anger, or his tenderness, or his strength. And as he lives these widely varied feelings, in all their degrees of intensity, he discovers that he has experienced *himself*, that he *is* all these feelings. He finds his behavior changing in constructive fashion in accordance with this newly experienced self. He approaches the

¹³ C. R. Rogers, "Significant Aspects of Client-Centered Therapy," *American Psychologist*, Vol. 1 (1946), pp. 415-422.

¹⁴ C. R. Rogers, "The Concept of the Fully Functioning Person," unpublished paper, University of Chicago, 1954, 14 pp.

realization that he no longer needs to fear what experience may hold, but can welcome it freely as a part of his changing and developing self.¹⁵

It may be gathered from the above quotation that the counselor in the non-directive technique proceeds on the principle that the individual—no matter how maladjusted he may become—possesses a strong drive to become mature and socially adjusted. This drive (innate by definition), in turn, appears to grow out of the concept of man as an equilibrium-seeking creature. That is to say that the individual to be well-adjusted will seek and find means for keeping his balance in an environment generally tending to imbalance.

Another feature of this technique is found in the fact that the counselor is obliged to set up a warm and "permissive" atmosphere in which the individual is made to feel free to bring out any of those problems which have upset him. Presumably unrestrained, the client, it is believed, will relieve himself of even his most absurd and unconventional feelings and attitudes. The formal interview, it is asserted, definitely tends to inhibit freedom of expression. On the other hand, in the permissive atmosphere of the client-centered situation there is no limit set to the kind of expression which the client may produce.

In the non-directive counseling situation the attempt is made to limit the probing, blaming, and interpretation to a minimum. The counselor therefore does not "lead" the client along certain lines of conversation; instead, the client himself unburdens his problems apparently in the manner best suited to his nature. The counselor *reflects* the feelings and thought content expressed by the client. This reflection helps the client to better understand himself and in a permissive and acceptant condition to develop positive attitudes and plans as steps toward maturity.

Contributions. Rogers and his associates have made several contributions to counseling and psychotherapy: They have presented a new attitude in the counseling relationship, they have clarified the process, and they have developed research procedures for critical analysis of counseling and psychotherapy.

(1) The concept of creating an emotional climate of warmth, permissiveness, and acceptance has been clarified by Rogers. This mental-hygiene approach emphasizes the importance of the counselor's attitudes and skills in being acceptant of the feelings and thoughts of the client, with feelings being more significant. Respect for the growth potential of each client is paramount.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

(2) The process of learning as modification of behavior has been better described by Rogers and colleagues. The client usually expresses negative responses (both feeling and thought); then as he finds these accepted and understood he probably becomes ambivalent, then positive in attitude and planning for a more mature pattern of living.

(3) Rogers pioneered the use of phonographically recording the counseling interview. This and other devices have brought scientific investigation into the "art of counseling." In other words, procedures of evaluation and research have been widely used.

Clinical Counseling

Williamson and Darley have been credited with establishing the clinical counseling approach. Later Hahn and MacLean¹⁶ and others associated at one time with the University of Minnesota have contributed to its perpetuation. In contrast with non-directive counseling this process has been labeled "directive." Pepinsky and Pepinsky¹⁷ have further defined it as the trait-and-factor-centered approach.

In Williamson's early book, he first defined and in his later book with Darley¹⁸ listed the six steps in the counseling process. These steps are obviously preceded by establishment of rapport and by some preliminary identification of the problem:

1. Analysis of data concerning student.
2. Synthesizing data so as to reveal assets and liabilities of the student.
3. Diagnosis of the problem by clinicians.
4. Prognosis or predication by clinician of the future development of the problem.
5. Counseling to improve the student's adjustment.
6. Follow-up to further assist student and check on counseling.

As indicated by the above steps, this approach is in reality an application of the scientific methodology. Greater emphasis is placed

¹⁶ M. E. Hahn and M. S. MacLean, *Counseling Psychology* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955).

¹⁷ Pepinsky and Pepinsky, *op. cit.*, pp. 23-26.

¹⁸ E. G. Williamson and J. G. Darley, *Student Personnel Work, An Outline of Clinical Procedures* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937), Chap. 6.

upon skilled diagnosis by the counselor, who to do so must have professional training and supervised experience. In contrast with non-directive procedures, the clinical counselor makes greater use of persuasion of the counselee to accept a recommendation. In addition, manipulation of environment, such as changing classrooms of certain pupils, is more frequently used. Both counseling approaches, however, recognize that the counselee must move toward self-direction.

Contributions. Several significant contributions have been and are being made by this approach: (1) The training of qualified counselors has been investigated with specific recommendations for professionalization of counselor functions. (2) Research and subsequent reporting by this group have added greatly to the literature in this field. Especially in the areas of testing and other measurements and diagnostic tools have contributions been made. Another area of fruitful research has been in the area of follow-up of the student and his improved adjustment as evidences of good counseling. (3) A basic approach to traditional educational-vocational planning and adjustment has been laid, the parts of which other approaches have used as points of agreement or points of departure. Its emphasis, however, has been on a logical or scientific rather than an emotional approach to choice of curriculum or occupation.

An Eclectic Approach to Counseling

Whereas a few years ago the literature was filled with statements indicating great controversy between directive and non-directive counseling, the more recent trend has been toward a recognition of the contributions of each in a developing field. Tyler has stated, in addition, that, "The tremendous possibilities in this area (counseling) are just beginning to be explored."¹⁹ Erickson states that a good counselor needs to know and be able to use all methods, to "shift gears" from one method to another, to use the tools which best fit his competencies, to continuously improve himself, and to adapt the counseling interview and process to the needs of the situation.²⁰

In the thinking of most people, an eclectic approach means that you

¹⁹ Leona Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953), p. 18.

²⁰ C. E. Erickson, *The Counseling Interview* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1950), p. 14.

pick and choose the desired elements from many different theories or systems and fuse them together into a composite of greater worth than any of the elements. Logicians point out that the result is usually not a synthesized, organized, and internally consistent theory, but a strange mixture. To avoid this possibility, it is incumbent upon any theoretical approach to present a methodology which gives each counselee a feeling of consistency and stability. This means reconciliation of divergent points and a coherent pattern and approach must emerge.

As we analyze the counseling process further we may recognize that the minimum elements included are: (1) the counselee and his need to be understood by self and counselor, (2) the counselor and his probable role, and (3) a situation requiring information or assistance which brought the counselee and counselor together. If it is accepted that the counselee is the most important element, then he and his personality needs and values should be the most important determiner of the counseling procedure employed to help him develop his strength to be self-directive. If the counselor is flexible and sufficiently well skilled in different counseling approaches he will be able to adapt to the needs and values of the counselee in a particular social setting. It is on this basis that an eclectic approach seems reasonable. This implies, however, that rigid individuals, over-emotional people, people who are not empathic and intelligent enough to understand and accept the ramifications and realities of a counseling situation will not be able to serve as counselors. Typical of this rigidity is the counselor who states he will be democratic, even if he has to force the democratic viewpoint upon a counselee. But, and this needs to be emphasized, the counselor will also fail in the eclectic approach if he becomes "wishy-washy" and inept in knowing his own counseling skills and how they may be adapted to the growth potential of his counselee.

Summary

The following represents some of the more basic concepts of counseling.

1. The primary goal of counseling is to help the counselee grow toward maturity. Thus a counselor's concept of maturity is a very significant and subtle factor in the counseling process.
2. Any help must in the final analysis be self-help through development of insight and self-understanding.

3. The counselee must be so accepted that he feels free with full opportunity for self-expression.

4. As a person-to-person technique it affords an effective means for helping prevent serious problems rather than curing them.

5. Counseling is an individualized learning situation within a given structure. The concepts of learning which apply in the classroom apply within the counseling situation; however, there is a much greater amount of emotional content.

6. Particular techniques to be employed in counseling must depend upon the needs of the individual in a particular setting or counseling agency.

7. Counselors should be professionally trained people who practice in terms of accepted codes of ethics.

Suggested Problems

1. Along with another member of the class, do some role-playing depicting the establishment of rapport between counselee and counselor. After you have done this once, reverse the roles so that counselee becomes counselor and vice-versa.

2. Compare the similarities and differences of the clinical and client-centered approaches to counseling. What are some advantages of each in the average school counseling situation?

3. Frank is a college freshman. He has spent over an hour trying to make out a program for the following semester and a friend suggests that he ought to see a counselor. Frank says, "Counselors are a waste of time." What reasons might Frank have for such an attitude?

4. George is consistently late to class. Administrative procedure in his school allows the teacher to lower his grade because of the tardiness. On two occasions he has arrived too late to take exams and consequently has failed the course. The boy goes to the counselor and complains saying that he has done all the required work and passed the other exams. Defend the teacher's viewpoint. Defend George's attitude. Assuming the role of the counselor, what would you do?

5. In what ways do theories of learning and theories of personality influence theories of counseling?

Suggested Readings

Bordin, E. S., "Counseling Points of View, Non-Directive and Others," pp. 120-129 in E. G. Williamson, *Trends in Student Personnel Work*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1949.

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See also the references cited in the footnotes.

Chapter 12

Counseling Procedures

The preceding chapter provides an analysis of the conceptual foundations which support the counseling structure. It was emphasized that counseling in the school is a person-to-person relationship in which individual development or prevention of impairment rather than correction is the prime consideration. Counseling is, further, an individualized learning situation within the context of guidance itself. Counseling and guidance share a common goal: contributing to individual growth and development. The concepts which thus apply to guidance (as a function of education) apply as well to counseling. As in learning, then, the aim of counseling is to foster self-understanding, self-direction, and optimum development. For without this kind of understanding it is difficult to perceive how the client can solve his problems. Counseling in the guidance effort must be concerned with the entire spectrum of personal relations which are part of normal living as well as with recognizing and referring the more deep-seated disturbances. This chapter will present ways and means by which it becomes possible to translate counseling theory into counseling practice.

Interviewing, Advising, Counseling, Psychotherapy Differentiated

In a sense any person who attempts individual assistance or instruction of another person is thereby involved in counseling or a related function. The graphic illustration in Fig. 12-1 presents the basic elements of counseling: a counselee, a counselor, and a situation. It is to be noted that an inter-personal relationship between counselor and counselee is developed as a result of this situation. These same elements are present in a teacher-pupil, teacher-teacher, or teacher-parent conference or advisement session. Whereas a conference may exist for mutual growth of both participants, counseling should be primarily for the growth of the counselee. (Growth of the patient toward increased maturity is also the goal of psychotherapy.)

Since counseling, in its generic sense, is an integral part of the entire educational process, it, too, directly affects the individual's development. Thus, it is important to refine the meaning of counseling, to differentiate it from related functions, and to define the operations of those who serve in those functions. Such clarification is needed because the counseling relationship is one in which personal inter-relationships are intensified as in few other areas. See Fig. 12-2. As the term "counselor" has been applied to many activities, such as camp counselor, insurance counselor, etc., there is further need to differentiate counseling from related functions.

Interviewing. The major instrument through which counseling is effected is the interview. Counseling is the larger process by which the individual is brought to an understanding and resolution of his problems. The interview is the actual face-to-face situation in which, through the medium of conversation, counseling takes place, hence

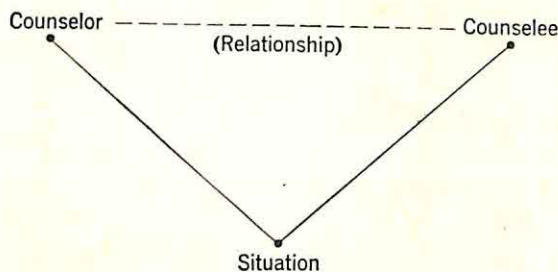


Fig. 12-1. *Elements in Counseling.*

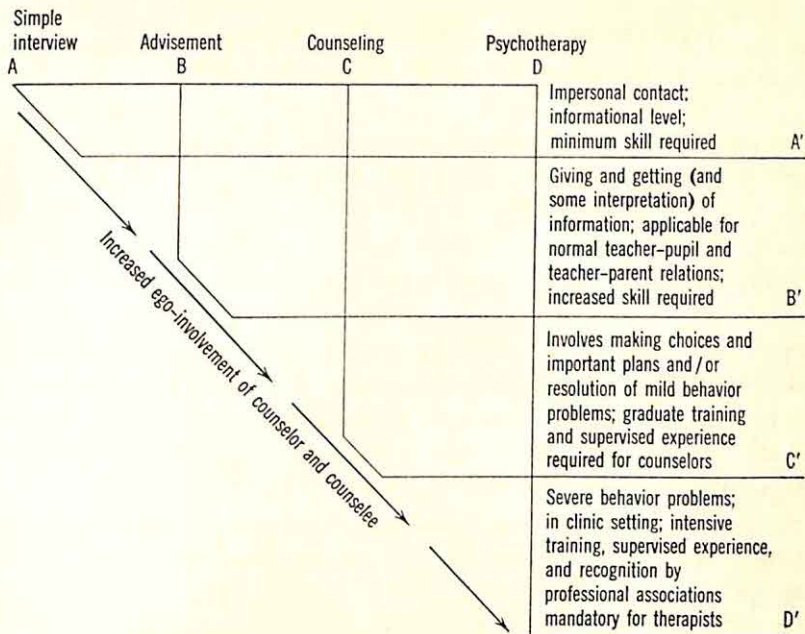


Fig. 12-2. The Counseling Continuum.

Line A to D represents a continuum on which are indicated counseling and its variations. In each, from the simple interview to psychotherapy itself, are the basic elements of the counselor, counselee, and situation. Increased skill plus adequate facilities and time are required as one moves toward the right on the counseling continuum. As one moves from simple interview to psychotherapy there is increased personal involvement on the part of those entering into the particular counseling situation.

the primary importance of conducting the interview along effective channels. Interviewing, however, is not wholly synonymous with counseling; in fact, counseling includes several other important techniques. Play therapy, for example, may be considered as a counseling technique in which there is little or no interviewing. Conversely, the interview itself has a number of uses which in the strict sense of the term can not be considered as counseling, e.g., employment interviewing, newspaper reporting, etc.

Advisement and Pupil Conference. Many pupils can be assisted in the advisement situation for information giving and getting. The great majority of pupils who seek counseling will probably just need the clarification and encouragement provided in advisement. Regularly scheduled advisement periods with each pupil do provide an

opportunity for preventing minor problems. In addition *such* personal contact, even on this level, enables the counselor to keep informed with respect to the pupil's development.

Advisement is more structured than either counseling or psychotherapy. The limits of time and facilities, and, perhaps, skill of adviser, demand more rigid curtailment of freedom of emotional release and intellectual explorations.

Counseling. The process of counseling as a means for modifying behavior is most fully expressed in its preventive-developmental aspects. No matter how counseling may be construed its purpose is that of helping each pupil interpret, understand, and plan his life experiences so as not only to avoid those conditions which may lead to impairment or breakdown but to become a positive and productive individual.

Counseling is more than advice-giving; it is more than solving immediate problems. It is concerned with attitudes and long-range planning; it is more concerned with cause than symptom. Counseling must be more enduring. In this respect it requires more time and planning than does advisement or information giving. Effective counseling requires skill and artistry on the part of the counselor. Furthermore, there is no substitute for personal warmth and understanding in the counseling situation.

Psychotherapy requires professional training and skills in diagnosis and treatment which have meaning for the teacher and counselor, among others, only as a referral source. Any teacher, adviser, or counselor who attempts either final diagnosis or treatment of a behavior disorder which needs specialized help is guilty of unethical practices. What is specifically required of those who do counseling is the ability to recognize and to refer those who need professional help to those sources which can provide such help.

Flexibility in Counseling. Obviously the counseling and related processes must be highly flexible since they are involved in so wide a range of activities and problems of both school and pupil. Individual differences are always in evidence. For example, counseling with a non-reader in the third grade will certainly be different in some aspects from counseling with a high school boy who plans to attend West Point. Both of these in turn will differ partially from the counseling which may occur with a college student who is having financial problems.

There is also the fact that many agencies other than schools and colleges provide counseling services to the young and old. Many of these agencies will be described in Chapter 14. School counseling and the counseling by employment and placement agencies are, in fact, by virtue of their common interests, closely related functions. All of these factors bring up the need for emphasis upon flexibility of approach to the problem.

The responsibility for advisement and counseling services falls primarily upon the teacher-counselor and the specialist. In the elementary school, the teacher almost by default, as it were, takes on part of the job of advising and counseling. On the other hand, many high schools and institutions of higher learning have organized counseling services, even if these services are not always adequately staffed. It is apparent, then, that many other people besides the qualified counselor will be involved in the counseling program. That all these various efforts need to be integrated if optimum development on the part of the individual is to take place needs no particular emphasis. All school personnel therefore should be conversant, at least, with the fundamentals of counseling.

Teaching and Counseling. There are many persons both in education and in guidance who have suggested that teaching and counseling become identical functions. While it is true that these two areas do indeed possess many features in common, there still exist basic differences which must also be considered in any appraisal of the problem. In this respect, Strang has written that, several years of teaching experience alone do not make a person competent in understanding individuals or in using the group as a means of personality development. If, however, he begins to use guidance techniques intelligently and thoughtfully, he will grow personally and professionally along with his students.¹

Following are some of the basic differences which exist between teaching and counseling:

1. Nature of the problem. Teaching serves as an expression of the will of the community in terms of a program of education for all students. Counseling while also involved in these goals is concerned with every pupil in terms of his personal development. Teaching is directed towards the imparting of information and skills (curriculum)

¹ Ruth Strang, *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1953), p. 311.

prescribed by a board of education. In counseling, the client is the key figure in determining what should be considered.

2. *Delegation of authority.* The teacher in the classroom represents authority, even though his role may be that of confidante and guide. The counselor, on the other hand, neither condemns nor condones; i.e., he is not an "authority-figure," even though authority may arise from group decisions as in the case of the democratically inspired group situation.

Teachers are required to evaluate and report pupil progress according to prescribed standards; counselors help the person to evaluate himself on a non-authoritarian basis.

3. *The group function.* Teaching is properly regarded as a group function. Counseling, on the other hand, is indubitably an individual function. Teaching may sometimes tend to overlook those who vary from the norm because it is involved in the group. It is just these persons who vary from the norm with whom counseling is so urgently concerned.

4. *Course of action.* Teaching is a planned function both in terms of prescribed curriculum and course of action. Counseling, while it too is a structured procedure, depends upon the client's progress and needs for its direction.

Counselor Qualities Which Contribute to a Satisfactory Working Relationship

The counselor's personal effectiveness will determine the success or failure of the counseling relationship. It is he who can either facilitate or inhibit the counselee. It follows that the counselor must be a person of stability, flexibility, and understanding. He needs to be, however, also objective in evaluating a situation. To do this the counselor needs to have had a broad background of experience in social relationships, as well as to be informed with respect to personal, educational, and occupational data.

The counselor needs to be that rare human, an equal mixture of scientist and artist. He must be sympathetic without coddling the client. He needs to be objective about another person's subjective feelings, but in an empathic way. In the counseling relationship clients often come to depend upon the counselor to an unwholesome degree. Counseling must lead to increased self-confidence on the part of the client. The wise counselor attempts to help his client to make his own decisions, never making a decision for him.

Steps in Counseling

In the development of a logical series of steps or procedures for use in counseling it must again be stated that the primary goal for the counselor is not to contribute to resolution of immediate situations but to help the person move towards increased maturity and self-direction. On the assumption that counseling is best interpreted as a systematic process in which several broad functional aspects are identifiable,² the following steps have been set forth around what appear to be the essential phases of the counselor-counselee relationship:

1. Determining the problem.
2. Establishing the proper conditions for the counseling situation.
3. Selecting appropriate methods to be used in counseling.
4. Facilitating the expression of feeling on the part of the counselee.
5. Assisting in the clarification of the problem: structuring the problem and the relationship.
6. Assembling the information systematically.
7. Interpreting the data.
8. Developing a course of action.
9. Making provision for further counseling.
10. Writing a summary report.
11. Conducting a follow-up program.

1. Determining the Problem. Counseling is a specialized procedure directed towards the resolution of individual problems. In a sense it is a "problem-centered" technique and thus the first step in counseling is an understanding of the precise nature of the problem. Such an understanding serves a dual purpose: (1) it saves time and effort in later counseling; and (2) it serves to focus attention on the conditions relevant to the problem.

An observant teacher, for example, is able to detect signs of trouble in a particular pupil's behavior. There are definite signs such as poor health, nervousness and fatigue, conflict with others, etc. which indicate the need for counseling services. In cases beyond her own competence the teacher must, of course, refer the pupil to a professional counselor. There will be instances, however, where she herself can function as a counselor. The important issue is that of determining just what the problem really is. The following are problems which should be referred to the counseling services.

² H. B. McDaniel, *Guidance in the Modern School* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1956), p. 157.

a. Pupils who demonstrate in their behavior serious maladjustments, such as steady conflict with others, willful disobedience in the classroom, etc.

b. Pupils who appear always to be nervous, unhappy, or who are excessively shy.

c. Pupils who are physically handicapped. These young people may not be maladjusted but they will need some added help.

d. Pupils who manifest delinquent behavior in such ways as stealing, vandalism, truancy, etc.

e. Pupils who can not or will not benefit by their school work even after all the usual remedial measures of the school have been tried.

f. Students who have choices and decisions to make.

g. Students who need assistance in reconstructing or integrating their value systems.

In opening the interview, especially the first one, it is extremely important that the flow of free conversation be facilitated as rapidly as possible. The counselor, if the client came voluntarily to see him, may start the process by asking the client to tell him why he came or ask him what he (the counselor) might do for him. If the client came at the request of the counselor, then the reason for the request should be explained, but in such a way that the counselee is not threatened or hindered from expressing his point of view.

Listen to the client's story. Begin where he is. Indicate that you understand what he is saying by nodding or by an appropriate comment. Don't put words into his mouth. Even when there are periods of silence, wait for him. Under no circumstances should the counselor talk more than the counselee. Do not block the flow of talk of the counselee by too frequent use of personal references. Avoid saying, "If I were you—."

As the counselee's statement or understanding of the reason for the interview is most important, it might be well to record it as nearly verbatim as possible. The vocabulary used by the counselee in the statement of the problem and subsequent thoughts and feelings expressed about it should set the level of verbal ability to be used during all of the interviews.

2. Establishing the Proper Conditions. The first point for the interviewer to recognize is the client's right to privacy. He must be "protected" from the presence of others, from interruption, in fact, from any intrusions which will make him feel insecure.

The actual physical setting should provide for the comfort of both

counselor and counselee. Adequate facilities, absence of uncomfortable lights, choice of seating arrangements are all aids in encouraging relaxation and making for rapport.

The counselor has to give a genuinely friendly reception. His materials should be nearby, although not too conspicuous. Both counselor and client must feel at ease if a proper exchange of information is to take place.

A definite time limit of an hour, a half-hour, or even fifteen minutes (depending upon the time available) is suggested as being helpful for the conduct of the interview. Such considerations provide the client with a feeling of being part of an activity that has a definite time-and-place setting. Following are some of the more basic rules of interviewing.

- a. Understand the problem of the situation of the client.
- b. Avoid the stumbling blocks of direct questioning. Never ask questions which can be answered "yes" or "no." Encourage the patient to talk. Say, "Can you tell me more?"
- c. Recognize the sensitivity of the client.
- d. Convince the client of the interviewer's sincerity and confidence.
- e. Understand the psychological rather than the logical.
- f. Keep in mind the client's stated reason may not be the real reason for his trouble.
- g. Maintain tactful kindness when dealing with the accumulation of strains and stresses of some lives.
- h. Face reality with the client, but use judgment as to when and how to bring him to face facts.
- i. Move slowly through the ramifications of conversation and help the client organize confused thinking.
- j. Keep away from problems you are unable to handle. The worker must mind his own business, and be able to secure proper help for the client if this is outside his realm.

3. Selecting Appropriate Methods to Be Used in Counseling. The first interview or significant contact with a counselee plus any other data which might be available should serve as the basis for determining what approach should be used. Adapting a counseling method to a particular counselee may mean many things, such as selecting a particular counselor who may work well with the person—which may require a change from a counselor who would normally counsel with the individual—having a counselor vary his approach to best fit that

situation; or referring the counselee to another school or community agency if the depth of the problem involved is too great for the counselor. In other words, some choice of approach must be made. The choice of the approach will require knowledge and skill in the uses of the general clinical or client-centered approaches described in the last chapter.

There are many practical considerations which must also be evaluated. Planning assistance for an individual should be geared to the requirements of the problem. If a pupil, for example, has inquired about the relative collegiate standards and offerings of Harvard and Michigan, it is not necessary to administer a Rorschach before answering. Likewise, if a teacher-counselor can handle a minor problem it is not necessary to refer it to a psychiatrist. A physician would not attempt psychotherapy for a patient with a broken arm. Neither should a counselor attempt to be purely logical in an emotionally charged situation; rather should he be an empathic listener.

The practical and common-sense application should not be used as an excuse for avoiding study and skill in the use of presently recognized theoretical approaches. In the final analysis, then, selecting an appropriate method is dependent upon the quality of diagnosis, by the counselee himself and/or the counselor, and, secondly, upon a knowledge of the methods which may be employed to help the individual move toward an acceptable goal. Such a statement should not be interpreted to mean that no assistance can be given unless a final diagnosis is made and the problem clearly defined. Many times it is necessary to give support to a person who is upset until more understanding of the problem can be determined. Many experienced counselors have found the first reason given by the counselee is usually not the real reason for seeking help.

4. Facilitating the Expression of Feeling by the Client. Since he requires help, the client should be encouraged to express his feelings, preferably in relation to a topic familiar to him. He needs to be reassured as to his freedom to express his feelings without any hindrance.

In order to expedite such expression the counselor has to respond in a way which indicates a recognition and acceptance of the feeling or attitude immediately underlying the client's statements. This kind of response, in turn, depends upon a recognition of the deeper feelings or attitudes underlying the client's expression. The building of a good counseling relationship is interfered with if the counselor fails to sense the importance of the pupil's problems. If the problem is im-

portant to the counselee it must be important to the counselor, even though the problem in reality is commonplace.

It takes experience to recognize shifts in conversation, the information which is conspicuous by its absence, the client's attempt's to hide facts even from himself. But with such experience the counselor can distinguish between remarks which have significance and others set up as a smoke screen. The perceptive counselor listens to his client understandingly. He "begins where the client is." He makes comments, or nods, or agrees, but never does he take the conversation away from the client merely for the sake of doing so.

Clients respond more easily when questions are put discreetly. Much of the information comes during unguarded moments. Hence the need for putting the client at his ease. Quite often the problem on the client's mind may not be the one he asks about. The real problem will emerge only after the client feels free to express himself.

5. Assisting in the Clarification of the Problem. The first point for the counselor to concede is the client's right to make his own decisions. This important concession will require *empathy*—the ability to put oneself in the other person's shoes, the ability to feel as he feels, believe as he believes, fear what he fears, need what he needs.

To clarify the problem or problems which bring the client to the counselor it is first necessary to recognize the nature of these problems. Is the conflict real or imaginary? How much importance does the client attach to his experiences? These questions are psychological rather than logical. People act largely on impulse. Logic is quite often for the client an excuse made to account for his impulses.

The counselor needs to realize that the client quite often, for example, will not perceive that which he ought to perceive according to what is expected of him. Thus the counselor has to use methods which realistically focus the problems of the client. Bordin has offered the following suggestions for this necessary step of orienting the client in terms of his real conflict.³

Keeping to reality. This implies that the counselor react in such a way as to facilitate the client's coming to terms with the many wishes and fears that are brought to bear on a specific problem of the individual.

Selection a critical facet of the problem. The counselor must help the counselee focus on the more critical aspects of the problem. The counselor must center attention upon a particular aspect of the client's "inner life." If he can do so he can thereby successfully limit the problem to a point where both counselor and counselee can understand it in its proper per-

³ E. S. Bordin, *Psychological Counseling* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955), pp. 334-351.

spective. To accomplish his purpose the counselor must help the client to establish greater intellectual control over his impulses.

Giving more cognitive emphasis to interactions. It is necessary if the counseling relationship is not to become too diffuse for the counselor to avoid fostering a vague or ambiguous conception of the trend of the interviewing relationship and its accompanying dimensions. Clarification of the conditions of the interview is a prerequisite of solving the problem which initially brought about the interview.

An interview is a conversation with a purpose, a purpose geared to the client's needs. Clarification of any problem is possible only when counselor and counselee can come to some agreement as to what the reasons for the interview are, the nature of the problem(s) to be discussed, the way by which to evaluate the counseling and finally what course of action to follow.

6. Assembling the Information Systematically. Make certain that the major aspects, at least, of the problem have been covered and that the client understands their nature and importance. Take notes only if it does not handicap the interview. However, it is necessary to try and remember as much as possible concerning what has taken place. Systematic assemblage of the information depends upon every possible facet of information. Even the first impressions of the client will help in later assembling of the facts. In pointing out advantages that may be expected to accrue from such initial observations, the Pepinskys write that:

The counselor will find it useful to put into the record a summary of his initial impressions of the client. Here he can record in condensed form his observations of, and inferences about, the client's behavior during the interview. His impressions can be stated as tentative hypotheses or hunches; his predictions of future client behavior can be made explicit. On the basis of these he may evolve a tentative and flexible plan for working with the client. Such a plan points toward the counselor's collecting further observations against which to test his initial hunches and upon which to base new ones. With his early impressions down in black and white, the counselor can use this summary as a kind of base line against which he may view subsequent events. His later notes, then, can indicate in brief fashion how, and for what reasons, his impressions and his predictions change, and to what extent his previous hunches have been borne out by what followed. He may find out that he is more wrong than right, but at least he will have found out, and maybe before it is too late. He will have some means, albeit crude, of carrying forward a continuing assessment of the counseling process and of the effectiveness of his own role in his interaction with the client. In the long run it will be to his advantage . . . and the client's . . . to find out for himself and to be able to communicate to others what he is up to. He need not be a less competent practitioner if he is a more respectable scientist.⁴

⁴ H. B. Pepinsky and Pauline N. Pepinsky, *Counseling Theory and Practice* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954), p. 191.

The client, however, must be held responsible for any of the decisions which finally may be made. It must also be pointed out to him that help for his problems is not always possible. However, in closing the interview, even temporarily, the client should not feel he is being "shunted off" on someone else.

Important aspects of the interview need to be recorded as soon as the interview is over. Referrals need to be made in order to learn whether or not the client has carried out his part of the program which has been mutually agreed upon. The counselor will often find it desirable to obtain additional information whereby he can verify some of the data he has been given. In addition he may need to call in other persons for help.

Information may be entered on regular forms, standardized as to headings, size, etc., if desired. Such entries should record not only the obvious factual data, i.e., family situation, community background, education, leisure- and work-time activities, etc., but as much of the client's thinking regarding these activities as possible. It may sometimes be more important to learn how the individual thinks than to ascertain what he does. Assembling the data involves the client from the beginning as an active participant.

On the appraisal form (record) the counselor should write a specific account of the understanding reached at the several stages of the interview series by the counselee and himself. Counseling records are not merely logical and rational accounts of such understandings. They must include the individual's responses as a human being with aspirations, feelings, belief, and values of his own.

7. Interpreting the Data. Interpretation of the data concerning an individual is admittedly fraught with some difficulties. To interpret is to go beyond what has been expressed by the counselee and all other data collected from biographical history, test scores, etc. Meaning must be given to the data collected. Understanding of what the data mean must arrive within the minds of both the counselee and the counselor. If both are able to draw the same conclusions the situation is greatly simplified. If, however, significant differences of interpretation develop then many problems may arise. As the purpose of the counseling process is to help the counselee develop insight and thus make wise choices and construct positive plans, comprehension on the part of the counselee is all-important.

Interpretation can only be of use to the counselee when he is ready for it, when he can achieve through it some more effective integration between the emotional and intellectual aspects of his behavior.⁵ Thus

⁵ Bordin, *op. cit.*, p. 158.

readiness on the part of the counselee becomes the prime consideration for interpretation, learning, and integration. The willingness of the counselee to participate in data gathering and interpretation suggests, but does not guarantee, a basis for determining readiness.

A distinction needs to be made at this point, however, between interpreting all of the data so as to reach some conclusion and interpreting one or more counselee statements, test scores, or bio-history items. Some counselors, particularly those who favor the client-centered approach, feel that direct interpretation by the counselor brings about a defensive attitude on the part of the counselee, a condition which may bring the interview to a halt. But even client-centered counselors accept the need to state in objective terms the meaning of a percentile score of a test which the counselee had requested to take.

Interpretation, then, may be of two kinds: interpreting as objectively and kindly as possible the meaning of each separate or unitary item of data; and secondly, generalizing or integrating each separately evaluated datum as it is added to the total study of the person.⁶ In the first kind, each pupil is helped to collect and "store away" many specifics, and in the latter he is helped to relate one specific to another and all into a total life pattern.

As the counselee or client learns specifics about himself and his environment and as he relates them to make minor decisions so is he increasing skill and confidence to make greater decisions and choices or resolve conflicts. The more accurate the data and the more willing he is to accept and integrate the more valid will be the counselee's self-concept and thus it will be productive of better thinking.

The skill of the counselor, who provides the help for the client to learn information and to conceptualize its meaning, is manifested by his own ability to understand the feelings, abilities, aptitudes, achievements, and interests of the counselee and draw meaningful relationships from the totality. As the counselor continuously adds new information to his understanding of an individual so will he modify his tentative hypotheses until a more stable hypothesis is made and tested. If the counselor is unable to conceptualize more rapidly than the counselee then he is of less help. Helping the counselee to see the meaningful relationship, to relate present behavior with past behavior, and to project both into future behavior is the major task of interpreting the data.

The counseling process should, therefore, move at the rate of

⁶ J. W. M. Rothney and B. A. Roens, *Counseling the Individual Student* (New York: William Sloane Associates, 1949), pp. 62-65.

speed indicated by the readiness and capacity of the counselee to learn and plan and accept the responsibility for application of his plans. If there are emotional blocks to acceptance of new meanings, new experiences, or synthesis of collected information, development and application of plans are delayed until the client is able to gain insight and take positive steps.

Helping the counselee to achieve insight is probably the most difficult point in the counseling process. Many individuals arrive at the gate of understanding but fail to open it. Only the most patient assistance on the part of the counselor and the counselee's motivation to succeed will finally lead to comprehension by the counselee.

Forms, charts, diagrams, and other devices are sometimes useful to help both the counselor and counselee first to collect information systematically and then to arrange, discard, re-arrange ideas until they begin to focus on acceptance or a conclusion.

8. Developing a Course of Action. Assisting the counselee to develop and carry out a positive course of action voluntarily is the goal of the counselor. To select new ways of responding to old stimuli and to move in the direction of new goals or new activities is frequently threatening to the counselee. Counseling should, therefore, help to free the counselee from ignorance, inhibition, and fears so that he may realistically assume the responsibility of making a choice.

A course of action will vary with the client. As he gains more information and more insight he may modify his plan. Patient and understanding assistance during periods of growth and change are required. Absolute and final planning may be a neat package but should not be the hope of the counselor. Flexibility and adaptability without suggestibility and timidity of purpose should be encouraged.

In areas of advisement or information giving the counselor or adviser should be confident with respect to the accuracy of his statements. Too frequently high school and college students take courses of action based on faulty information given by an adviser. In the event the adviser does not have an answer, he should state this fact clearly, and if at all possible, he should seek to find out before the next interview. Clients tend to lose faith in a counselor who does not play fair with them. Not having all of the answers will present the counselor in a better light than attempting to be a fountainhead of authority. There are areas in which most counselors are not trained such as law or medicine. In these areas no specific information should be given; rather referral to reliable sources of legal or medical services should be made.

9. Making Provision for Further Counseling. After a plan of action has been determined, further assistance may need to be provided. Temporarily, the assistance may amount to reassurance or it may be that of referral to a placement service or helping the counselee complete an application form for a job or for further training, such as college. In making any provision for further counseling the counselor does so on the basis of what has thus far been developed out of his work with the client.

Although the success of a series of counseling sessions can be measured largely by the client's sense of achievement and resolution, the importance of flexibility and further growth demands that the counselee not consider his presently stated plans to be absolutely final. Thus, each counseling interview should always be "open-ended." Each contact should end with the assurance that the assistance of the counselor is available upon request. This assurance, however, should not be misunderstood to mean that the counselee should become dependent upon the counselor.⁷ Students need to grow in both understanding and self-direction. Knowing that they can return for additional help is conducive to the security they need.

10. Writing a Summary Report. A major assumption of counseling, in the school particularly, is that records are necessary and desirable: first, because of the requirement that the findings closely related to school matters be documented and second, because records often need to be transmitted between offices in the schools as well as between schools. A third reason is that counseling is a continuous process and even though there may be long interruptions and delays, the case may be opened again at any time by either the same counselor or by a counselor other than the one who originally accepted the responsibility for counseling. Over and above all of these previous considerations is the fact that the nature and contents of such records have an important influence on the way counseling is conducted. Some have said that counseling is no better than the record which is kept of it.

If counseling is a systematic process, all record forms have to be structured around the aspects of the counselor-counselee activity and the use to be made of them. If the school maintains cumulative records, and all schools should consider this an absolute minimum guidance service, the report of the counselor-counselee contracts should be included in that folder.

⁷ McDaniel, *op. cit.*, p. 169.

What should be in the report of the counseling process? How can I keep records if I am limited in time? These and many other questions are ones which are frequently asked. As a minimum, the report of counseling should contain, as previously indicated, the reason why the counselee came to see the counselor, stated within the frame of reference of the counselee. It should describe what was done in sequential order and the process of how the counselee (and counselor) gathered information, synthesized the data, and made plans—if he did. At all pertinent points, the counselor should supplement the record with additional data, his own hypothesis for interpretation, and evaluation of the client's progress or need for progress. These statements and evaluations should, however, be labeled as professional judgments.

Although it may not be expected that advisers and counselors will write as complete and refined cases as trained social workers, certainly each counselee deserves to have a minimum report be placed in his file. In the long run duplication of effort is avoided as well as focus being added to thinking. Each report should use vocabulary and style appropriate to the level of the intended reader. In other words, the writer should have in mind a particular audience. An illustration of a summary report follows:

The counselee, *David Jones*, came to the counselor's office expressly for vocational advisement. He specifically wished to evaluate his present chances of succeeding in Chemical Engineering. He is presently 23 years old, single, and he has been out of the service only a little more than a month.

The counselee's father died when he was 14 and he has lived with his mother since that time; there are no siblings.

The counselee attended and completed the 11th grade at Center High School. He left school because of financial pressures that occurred as a result of his father's death and the counselor accepts his statement that he did not wish to leave before graduation. He was active in the various science clubs in the school and maintained a B average in a technical science major.

His transcript shows a B average and also points out that he did not take all of the necessary pre-requisites for a college preparatory science major.

After leaving school he secured a job at a department store that trained him for a position as department manager. He attended that firm's in-service business management course for six months and attained the position of department manager of the receiving department in one of their stores. He left their employ after two years, because of an altercation with a supervisor.

He obtained employment as a shipping clerk (manager of small department) with a clothing firm in the city and held this job until he went into the service. In the Army he performed somewhat related duties in that he served as a supply sergeant for 23 months.

Upon separation he resolved to return to his blighted high school goal of Chemist now that he has saved up some money. He has lost interest in the business area and feels that he went into this work formerly, merely because he needed a job at that time and he found an opportunity. He is aware that he is at a disadvantage in pursuing Chemistry after this interview, but he took and passed his G.E.D. tests immediately after his release from the Army.

Tests were administered and showed a suitable interest pattern for his stated goal, and other closely related work in the scientific area. His collegiate scholastic ability score is good, especially so when one considers that he did not complete high school.

There is evidence, however, that his abilities are not of the very highest order and he will have to both "backtrack and hustle" to make out in this objective that demands a rather formidable cluster of abilities. His math achievement test scores comfortably exceed his completed level of instruction and this is, of course, a positive sign.

He will enter this junior college this fall and leave his present interim job of sign painter.

The counselor thinks that he will have a rather good fighting chance of achieving his goal of Chemist. He is highly motivated, relaxed, socially gifted and his present economic circumstances will permit him to wholeheartedly pursue this goal. If he does find it too demanding, certain slightly less exacting alternate goals at the technician level have been discussed with him.

11. The Follow-Up. Follow-up of an individual insures the continuity of the counseling process. It assures the counselee that the counselor is interested in him. It must, however, be done in such a way that the counselee does not feel that someone is checking up on him. Rather it should imply to him that the counselor's door is always open.

Systematic ways of following-up on pupils in a vocational-guidance program are presented in Chapter 13 and so will not be covered here.

Summary

This chapter suggested some definite steps to be followed in the counseling process. These steps are means whereby the individual is helped to "ascertain, accept, understand and apply" the facts about himself both to his career and to his development as a person. It was emphasized that counseling is a means toward accomplishing these high goals, but a means which needs careful preparation and planning. Counseling must be a flexible technique by virtue of the fact that it plans to help everyone. To be an effective counselor requires special personal qualifications. It is no easy task to analyze

and arrange ideas and materials systematically. Nor is it simple to use sound judgment and objectivity in weighing facts while at the same time feeling a genuine interest in the client's problems. Counseling may thus be considered both as an art and as a science. The next chapter will discuss counseling along with other means by which to implement the vocational-guidance program.

Suggested Problems

1. In what way is every teacher a counselor and in what way is he not?
2. How does a counselor know he has good rapport with a counselee?
3. What are the indications a counselor should look for to determine when to close a counseling session.
4. In what ways would counseling practices differ under a totalitarian form of government as compared with a democracy?
5. Should a superior sixteen-year-old boy be given freedom of choice as to whether he should drop out of school? How should the counselor try to dissuade him?

Suggested Readings

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See also the references cited in the footnotes.

Chapter 13

Occupational Information in Counseling

The present chapter is a corollary of the preceding one since the steps in the counseling process outlined there are essentially those which are applicable to vocational counseling. Vocational counseling rests upon four basic principles: (1) that planned curriculum and/or group guidance experiences should precede individual counseling; (2) that the problem or purpose for counseling must be related to level of vocational development; (3) that personal data obtained in the first part of the counseling process must be interpreted in terms of vocational information; and (4) that up-to-date knowledge and skill in the use of occupational and educational information is the hallmark of the qualified vocational counselor. Major emphasis will be placed upon the last aspect of vocational counseling in this chapter.

Countless new careers now have been opened because of fast-moving developments in science, technology, government, and international relations. Many of those who wish to be identified with these new social and industrial developments, however, have failed in their attempts to do so because they lacked information or guidance. The school, as well as industry (both labor and management) and government are together responsible for vocational guidance. The student must be able not only to select the career which suits his temperament, ability, etc., but also to become flexible enough to accommodate to the varieties of present jobs as well as to the inevitable

changes in the future. Faced with a literally bewildering array of job possibilities, the individual needs to learn about those opportunities which will neither frustrate him nor waste valuable time and effort.

However, before moving directly to the first five steps of the counseling process, a theoretical approach to vocational development should be considered as a background against which to clarify the counseling process.

Vocational Development

Although volumes have been written about the need for and practice of vocational guidance, curiously enough, little has been written concerning how and why an individual "chooses" an occupation. Is occupational choice one of pure logic? Is it an emotional one? Is choice developmental in nature? Can school and industrial leaders manipulate an individual and a situation so that a given worker will fit any given job? The answers to these and other questions are still in the future. Research studies in many areas are needed to clarify the problems and to present more definite answers. Ginzberg,¹ Super,² and others have presented independently some propositions for consideration as part of an extensive research program. Those by Super have been selected for listing here. They are stated as propositions concerning which research is still in progress. The first three propositions are well established and accepted; more verification is needed for the others. Professional as well as lay people would do well to study, evaluate, and utilize them as a basis for programs of vocational planning.

Proposition 1. Vocational development is an ongoing, continuous and generally irreversible process.

Proposition 2. Vocational development is an orderly, patterned process and thus predictable.

Proposition 3. Vocational development is a dynamic process of compromise or synthesis.

Proposition 4. Self-concepts begin to form prior to adolescence, become clearer in adolescence, and are translated into occupational terms in adolescence.

Proposition 5. Reality factors (the reality of personal characteristics and

¹ E. Ginzberg, "Toward a Theory of Occupational Choice," *Occupations*, Vol. 30 (1952), pp. 491-494.

² D. E. Super et al., *Vocational Development, A Framework for Research*, (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957).

the reality of society) play an increasingly important part in occupational choice with increasing age, from early adolescence to adulthood.

Proposition 6. Identification with a parent or parent substitute is related to the development of adequate roles, their consistent and harmonious interrelationship, and their interpretation in terms of vocational plans and eventualities.

Proposition 7. The direction and rate of the vertical movement of an individual from one occupational level to another is related to his intelligence, parental socioeconomic level, status needs, values, interests, skill in interpersonal relationships, and the supply and demand conditions in the economy.

Proposition 8. The occupational field which the individual enters is related to his interests and values, the identifications he makes with parental or substitute role models, the community resources he uses, the level and quality of his educational background, and the occupational structure, trends, and attitudes of his community.

Proposition 9. Although each occupation requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests, and personality traits, the tolerances are wide enough to allow both some variety of individuals in each occupation and some diversity of occupations for each individual.

Proposition 10. Work satisfactions depend upon the extent to which the individual can find adequate outlets in his job for his abilities, interests, values, and personality traits.

Proposition 11. The degree of satisfaction the individual attains from his work is related to the degree to which he has been able to implement his self-concept in his work.³

An examination of the above propositions and the concepts of vocational maturity presented at the end of Chapter 4⁴ point rather conclusively to the fact that vocational counseling should be considered in terms of total life patterns.⁵

Determinants of Career Patterns. In much the same way that the educational or school psychologist studies the developmental history of a child for clues to learning problems so must the vocational counselor (psychologist or otherwise) investigate total developmental patterns for those conditions which determine choice and adjustment. The determinants of career patterns can not be reduced to a formula, a principle well clarified in Super's proposals. The importance of a determinant varies from life stage to life stage, from person to person, and occupation to occupation. A summary of the determinants presented by Super should point up the multi-dimensional aspect of career patterns.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 89-96.

⁴ See pp. 97-98.

⁵ See, for example, A. Roe, *The Psychology of Occupation* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1956).

1. Individual Characteristics and Experiences
 - A. Psychological characteristics such as mental ability, aptitudes, achievements, personality (including attitudes, values, needs, etc.), self concepts and level of motivation.
 - B. Physical characteristics, such as size, strength, body structure, health, endocrine balance, and special physical assets or weaknesses.
 - C. Experience, such as training, skills, hobbies, work history, leisure activities, memberships, social skills, and identification with or rejection of role models.
2. Individual's Personal Situation
 - A. Parental family background, such as socioeconomic status of the parents, occupation of parents, family financial status, family interpersonal relations, reputation of family, position in family, and aspirations of parents.
 - B. Own family situation, such as marital status, number and ages of dependents, aspirations of spouse and family interpersonal relationships.
 - C. General situation, such as race, religion, competition, attitudes of others, socioeconomic and financial status and condition, geographical location, citizenship, etc.
3. Individual's environment including economic conditions, occupational structure trends, technological developments, international relations, national policies, and other general characteristics of community and nation.
4. Nonpredictable factors, such as losses, accidents, illnesses, and death; or unexpected opportunities.⁶

Vocational Counseling

It should be evident from the foregoing concepts that the determination and clarification of the occupational problem are very complex matters indeed. Skill and artistry in counseling will be required if the counselor hopes to establish the proper conditions, select the appropriate method, facilitate freedom of expression of feeling, and encourage a logical analysis of a given problem.

Because vocational choice and later adjustment are dynamic processes, counseling is advisable at many points. Counseling should be readily available to assist the young and developing child interpret the meaning of his life experiences. It appears most necessary in the initial planning stages; it may well be utilized at any time to facilitate adjustment while on the job or to meet new problems as they arise on the job or in preparing to take one.

Speaking both ideally and practically, it is, therefore, recommended that each pupil should—beginning no later than the eighth grade,

⁶ Super, *op. cit.*, pp. 81-83.

and as early as the sixth—receive assistance which would help him assess systematically his abilities, values, and interests. The pupil also not only should be assisted in exploring and studying the educational and vocational fields, but should be provided counseling to help integrate these two processes.

Several school districts have already prepared workbooks which have proved useful in expediting the tasks of self-understanding and exploration of the world of work. The workbook prepared by Martin Katz, *You: Today and Tomorrow*, for the Educational Testing Service (Princeton, New Jersey: 1958) is an illustration of this kind of publication with respect to vocational problems of junior high school pupils. It has been designed in terms of a group guidance project covering approximately thirty classroom periods.

Counseling, most researchers agree, becomes much simpler if preceded by group guidance programs that help the pupil to better understand himself and the occupational world.⁷

The Vocational Counseling Process Employed by the Veterans Administration. Although there are many excellent counselors in guidance centers and schools who provide superior vocational counseling, probably no other agency has done so much work in this field as the United States Veterans Administration. The practices of this notable agency, therefore, justify keen consideration. Cooperman, Gleason, McCully, and Peck recently summarized some basic concepts of vocational counseling in their discussion of the new forms and procedures employed now by Veterans Administration counselors. Their basic assumptions concerning vocational counseling and the counseling record are as follows: (1) counseling is a systematic process; (2) counseling is a cooperative process; (3) vocational choice and adjustment are based to a considerable degree on affective factors; and (4) counseling is a learning experience. Regarding counseling as a systematic process the authors state their case as follows:

On the assumption that vocational counseling is a systematic process, in which several broad functional aspects are identifiable, the forms have been structured around what appear to be the essential phases of counselee-counselor activity. They are: gathering data which will help the counselee to define or to clarify his problems of vocational adjustment and which will aid him in their solution; synthesizing and evaluating these data and setting up tentative hypotheses as to the directions in which the solutions to the problems may lie and especially as to the occupational implications of the data in terms of the fields of work that seem promising for exploration;

⁷ Chapters 8 and 10 of the present text include curricular and group experiences useful in occupational planning.

testing these hypotheses in the light of further exploration and additional information; modification of the hypotheses and consequent narrowing of the range of choice; and choice of goal and making of educational and vocational plans. This functional and logical sequence in no sense implies an unvarying temporal sequence or a detailed procedural lockstep that the counseling must follow. On the contrary, it is recognized that counseling is a fluid, dynamic process in which the several phases are interrelated. No record, not even a complete verbatim account, could reflect the progress of counseling entirely adequately.⁸

The procedures suggested by the Veterans Administration and around which their forms and methods have been constructed can be described in the following manner: The counselee on arrival at the guidance center, and after clearance of proper identification, is requested to complete, in his own words, a regulation form which has both specific and open-ended type questions concerning family, community, education and training, leisure-time activities, and work history—civilian and military. Included, also, in this form are spaces for the counselee to suggest occupation or training in which he is now interested, with reasons for each, and any other personal matters he would like to talk about. The counselor then further explores the information with the counselee in accordance with best interviewing techniques. New data may be added to the collection.

On the basis of the collected data, results from testing suggested in initial interview, and other educational and health records, the counselor prepares a statement which gives first, the counselor's understanding of what the counselee's problems, needs, circumstances, capacities, values, and aptitudes are; and second, the counselor's appraisal of the same factors. Occupations suggested by these data are checked on a table listing the main classifications plus major subgroups of Part IV, *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*.

At the next counseling session the occupational fields indicated by counselee's interests and counselor's evaluation are systematically studied. Narrowing of the fields may be indicated. Gradually interest areas are narrowed down until but one or two choices become evident. If, however, just general fields are indicated, determination of occupational levels, such as professional or skilled, may be the only conclusion. Or, for example, the counselee may finally express interests in such a field as social service, at a level requiring college education. Final decision may be delayed as to which occupation in the social service field he should specialize in until completion of part of a college program.

⁸ I. G. Cooperman, C. W. Gleason, C. H. McCully, and B. Peck, "Counseling and the Counseling Record," *The Personnel and Guidance Journal*, Vol. XXXIV, No. 6 (Feb. 1956), p. 334.

After the counseling has been completed the counselor writes in narrative form an integrative statement describing significant developments, objectives chosen with justification, alternative objectives, and possible problems likely to arise in any proposed training or employment.

The above procedures indicate the deliberate process of vocational counseling where at least from six to eight hours (and often twice that amount of time) are spent with each counselee. The question in the mind of each school counselor, of course, is whether he can afford such a time-consuming program. A study of actual summary reports of three cases (rewritten especially for this text) may be helpful as illustrations of the ramifications and subtle problems inherent in vocational planning.

CASE 1, ROBERT

Robert, 18 years old, a high school senior, came to the counselor apparently seeking confirmation of his occupational objectives. He was going to be a mechanical *engineer* and was planning to attend a nationally known university.

He was neatly dressed and spoke very easily, using proper grammar. There was, however, a slight speech defect which Robert later explained on questioning was caused by a cleft palate which had been treated by plastic surgery.

According to test scores administered prior to and during the counseling sessions his interest pattern in the Kuder Preference Record indicated very high interest in science, computational and verbal fields. Scholastic and scientific aptitude tests were at the 99th percentile. He had completed two years of algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and solid geometry, as well as the usual science, social studies, English, etc. In addition he had three years of Latin. All were scholarship grades.

Robert's father was raised in Austria and had been fairly successful in Europe and the U.S. as owner of a small business, but he died when Robert was 14—six years after coming to this country. His mother has supported the boy by working as a beauty operator.

Thus, thought the counselor, this was a clear-cut objective; however, he listened.

Robert planned to complete work for a bachelor's degree in engineering and then take a year of graduate work—not necessarily engineering. Furthermore, as Robert projected his thinking into the occupational future it became evident to the counselor that the counselee really did not *mean* he wanted to be a mechanical engineer. Somehow, in his past planning Robert had concluded that mathematics and science courses lead only to engineering.

The counselor was then able to help the counselee explore the many other occupational areas which required mathematical interests and ability. This

systematic study of occupational fields intrigued him as well as causing some consternation, which resulted from his own realization of his mistaken conclusions.

Further counseling led to the conclusion that Robert would not at this time make a final choice. He planned instead to go to the university, seek a degree with emphasis in mathematics. By the time he reached his junior year he thought he could make a more specific choice.

CASE 2, JOHN

John's high school transcript preceded him to the counselor. It was filled with C's plus a few D's and B's. Nearly all of his work was in vocational courses such as crafts, typing, etc. He had a D in algebra and had failed twice in geometry. When he was in the ninth grade he had scored a 104 I.Q. on the California Test of Mental Maturity. On the California Achievement tests he scored 8.2 in reading, 7.9 in arithmetic, and 7.9 in language.

When John appeared at the counselor's office he was friendly and cooperative. He had decided he wanted to go to a state college and study to be a police officer. He wanted "to do police work." There was no mention of police administration or advanced work in criminology.

As he progressed in his thinking there was evidence of his failure to relate his plans and his own academic history, and lack of knowledge of occupational fields.

At one point in the second interview John blurted out that he really did not want to go to school. He said, "I know I couldn't become a criminologist and so it is not for me." He really planned to give up school, but there wasn't anything else to do.

John's father is a chief petty officer in the Coast Guard. His mother is a ward attendant in a hospital. She wouldn't accept his dropping out of school saying (in an interview with the counselor) "He has to make up his own mind . . . I want him to go to school even though he may not be accomplishing something."

Thus John felt the pressure and found it hard to make a decision, but money was available for him to go to college.

His part-time experience consisted mainly of working for service stations.

Several occupational fields were suggested including drafting, commercial, and mechanical fields—all at the two-year terminal level.

At the last meeting John was thinking of taking a two-year course in forestry. Such an occupational area he thought would fit him.

CASE 3, JIMMY

Jimmy was now 18 and ready to enter a junior college. He wanted to be an elementary school teacher. At the interview he was well dressed, courteous, and very pleasant. He looks like a good prospect, thought the counselor; he likes children.

As Jimmy outlined his plans he used simple sentences and made ambiguous statements, but failed to clarify any of them.

His high school record indicated twenty-one D's in academic subjects, but satisfactory grades, including some B's, in activity courses. He had failed algebra during the second semester, also geometry and world affairs.

At the end of the first interview Jimmy and the counselor agreed that certain tests might be helpful. Results indicated that he was below the 10th percentile in scholastic aptitude (Freshman norms for A.C.E.); on an achievement test he scored 7.4 in reading, and 5.2 in arithmetic. His interests (Kuder) were above the 75th percentile in social service, clerical, and musical.

Jimmy's father is a carpenter who has a contractor's license and now builds dwellings. His mother had been an elementary teacher in another state before her marriage. She had completed one year of college.

At the interview with his parents Jimmy was described by his mother as an ideal boy. At the same interview Jimmy said that he wanted to teach young children so long as it was not arithmetic or English. He disliked those subjects in high school. After the formal interview, the father in private and insightful remarks said, "He really doesn't want to teach little kids; he just wants to play with them. . . . You know what is wrong with that boy? He never lusts to do what kids normally like to do. . . . When he gets mad he just clams up and I can see the sweat coming over the bridge of his nose. . . . He never does anything wrong."

Further interviews with Jim ended in his conclusion to attend adult evening courses. Although he had not entirely given up on being a teacher, he was considering a clerical job.

Occupational Information in the Counseling Interview

With respect to the systematic assembling and the interpretation of data (step 6), in fact, to all of the different steps of counseling, certain principles are evident. One of the best-prepared statements on these principles of counseling is that by Sinick:

1. Individual appraisal, both by self and by a counselor, should precede any use of occupational information.
2. Information should be given at the appropriate point of readiness of the counselee and in a way that minimizes the role of the counselor and maximizes the participation of the counselee.
3. Suitable printed material should be used rather than reliance upon the memory of the counselor.
4. The counselor should help prepare the counselee to read library materials, should help him select them and then should clarify them so that information might be better integrated by the counselee.

5. Coverage of materials must be adequate as to the pertinent facts of specific occupations and as to breadth of coverage of all occupations indicated by individual appraisal.

6. Information should be presented objectively and dispassionately so that the counselee may fully express his feelings in relation to it.

7. The information must be presented in terms which are meaningful to the client.

8. Further research is needed to determine the relative effectiveness of the various techniques for giving occupational information.⁹

Principles for disseminating occupational information will have little meaning if the counselor is uninformed with regard to the structure, trends, and courses of occupational information. The following pages include recent and pertinent data in the area of occupational information.

Occupational Structure

Two basic systems are in use today for providing broad and complete coverage about the world of work: the census classification and the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*.

The Census Classification. Every ten years the United States Census is taken by personal survey. Part of the survey pertains to the occupational status of every person 14 years of age and older. In order to tabulate and present graphically the millions of responses obtained by the census takers, a classification system of some sort must be employed. The eleven major groups of occupations used in the 1950 reports are as follows:

Code	Major Occupational Group
000	Professional, technical, and kindred workers
100	Farmers and farm managers
200	Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm
300	Clerical and kindred workers
400	Sales workers
500	Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers
600	Operatives and kindred workers
700 to 720	Private household workers
730 to 790	Service workers, except private household
800	Farm laborers and foremen
900	Laborers, except farm and mine

⁹ D. Sinick, "Occupational Information in the Counseling Interview," *The Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, Vol. 4, No. 4 (Summer 1956), pp. 145-149.

The three-digit number is in turn broken down into subgroups. For example, the 000 group is accountants and auditors, while 006 refers to authors. Bakers are listed as 500; 602 refers to apprentice carpenters. Thus, the major eleven groups are subdivided into approximately 400 general groups. In turn, the general groups are expanded into an alphabetical list of occupational titles totaling over 18,000. While the latter list is far too extensive for reading or study, the list of 400 general occupational groups may be profitably used as a check list for describing in general the world of work.

The following table, prepared by the Bureau of Census in their Reports, Series P-57, No. 97, August 4, 1950, provides a general picture of the occupational structure at a given time.

MAJOR CENSUS OCCUPATION GROUP OF EMPLOYED PERSONS, BY SEX,
FOR THE UNITED STATES: WEEK OF JULY 2-8, 1950
(Thousands of Persons 14 Years of Age and Over)

Major Occupation Group	Both			Per Cent Distribution		
	Sexes	Male	Female	Sexes	Male	Female
Total employed	61,214	43,582	17,632	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and semiprofessional workers	4,213	2,554	1,659	6.9	5.9	9.4
Farmers and farm managers	4,603	4,326	277	7.5	9.9	1.6
Proprietors, managers and officials, except farm	6,538	5,463	1,075	10.7	12.5	6.1
Clerical and kindred workers	7,720	3,112	4,608	12.6	7.1	26.1
Salesmen and saleswomen	3,797	2,385	1,412	6.2	5.5	8.0
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	7,963	7,758	205	13.0	17.8	1.2
Operatives and kindred workers	12,231	8,993	3,238	20.0	20.6	18.4
Domestic service workers	1,925	196	1,729	3.1	0.4	9.8
Service workers, except domestic	4,640	2,472	2,168	7.6	5.7	12.3
Farm laborers and foremen	3,662	2,480	1,182	6.0	5.7	6.7
Laborers, except farm and mine	3,926	3,846	80	6.4	8.8	0.5

Another and later picture of the major occupational groups classified according to the Census Bureau structure is given in Fig. 13-1. Certain comparisons in job offerings may be made. These data should also be kept in mind in considering occupational trends, which are presented briefly in a subsequent section.

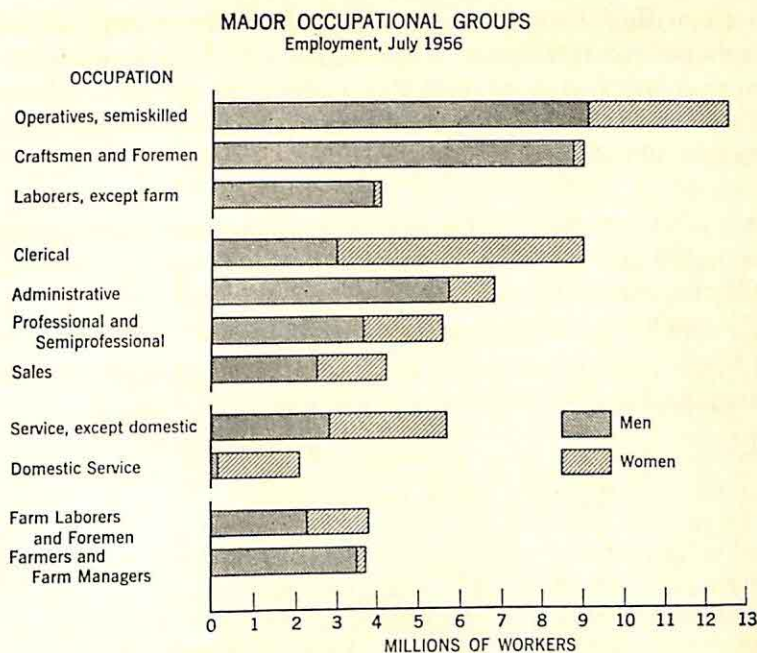


Fig. 13-1. (United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Reproduced from the 1957 Occupational Outlook Handbook.)

While the Census classification does present a picture of the occupational structure its usefulness is limited for counselors. This is because job definitions are not provided, and hence a counselee may not be able to analyze a particular job.

The Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT). This monumental work is probably the most frequently used occupational classification of all those available. Volume I, *Definitions of Titles*, contains in alphabetical order the code number, title, and definition of well over 22,000 occupations. Volume II, *Occupational Classification*, gives the classification structure and code system of the dictionary as well as major groups, the three-digit subgroups, a highly refined job-title list, plus other supplemental information (Volume III is a supplement to I and II). Volume IV, *Entry Occupational Classification*, classifies fields and levels of work for those people entering the work force. It is this volume which is so valuable in counseling.

The code structure for identifying over 40,000 job titles is similar, but not identical, to the Census classification. Five or six digits are

employed, with the first digit indicating the major group and following digits indicating subgroups and finally titles. A cost accountant, for example, is coded as 0-01.10, while a locomotive engineer is 5-41.010. The following list of the seven major groups with main subgroups will help describe the structure.

0-00.00 through 0-99.99	Professional and Managerial occupations
0-00.00 through 0-39.99	Professional occupations
0-40.00 through 0-69.99	Semiprofessional occupations
0-70.00 through 0-99.99	Managerial and Official occupations
1-00.00 through 1-99.99	Clerical and Sales occupations
1-00.00 through 1-49.99	Clerical and Kindred occupations
1-50.00 through 1-99.99	Sales and Kindred occupations
2-00.00 through 2-99.99	Service occupations
2-00.00 through 2-09.99	Domestic Service occupations
2-20.00 through 2-59.99	Personal Service occupations
2-60.00 through 2-69.99	Protective Service occupations
2-80.00 through 2-99.99	Building Service Workers and Porters
3-00.00 through 3-99.99	Agriculture, Fishing, Forestry, and Kindred occupations
3-00.00 through 3-49.99	Agriculture, Horticulture, and Kindred occupations
3-80.00 through 3-89.99	Fishery occupations
3-90.00 through 3-99.99	Forestry (except logging) and Hunting and Trapping occupations
4-00.000 through 5-99.999	Skilled occupations
4-01.000 through 5-18.999	Skilled occupations in Manufacturing and Related occupations
5-20.000 through 5-61.999	Skilled occupations in Non-Manufacturing activities
5-61.000 through 5-61.999	Public Service occupations, not elsewhere classified
5-63.000 through 5-89.999	Miscellaneous (Skilled) occupations
5-91.000 through 5-99.999	Foremen
6-00.00 through 7-99.999	Semiskilled occupations
6-01.000 through 7-18.999	Semiskilled occupations in Manufacturing and Related activities
7-20.000 through 7-61.999	Semiskilled occupations in Non-Manufacturing activities
7-61.000 through 7-61.999	Public Service occupations, n.e.c.
7-63.000 through 7-89.99	Miscellaneous (Semiskilled) occupations
7-93.000 through 7-99.999	Apprentices

8-00.00 through 9-99.99	Unskilled occupations
8-01.00 through 9-18.99	Occupations in Manufacturing and Related activities
9-20.00 through 9-61.99	Occupations in Non-Manufacturing activities
9-61.00 through 9-61.99	Public Service occupations, n.e.c.
9-63.00 through 9-89.00	Miscellaneous occupations

Part IV of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* has a slightly different coding system. Whereas Parts I and II define jobs for fully qualified workers, Part IV groups the jobs according to nature of tasks performed and the requirements of workers in entry occupations. It is designed to serve as a tool for the counselor and placement officer for helping the unqualified systematically explore the world of work.

Entry codes are distinguished from the codes of Part I and II by an "X" in the second-digit position. An example is the following:

- 1-X Clerical and Sales Work
 - 1-X1 Computing Work
 - 1-X2 Recording Work
 - 1-X4 General Clerical Work
 - 1-X5 Public Contact Work¹⁰

Section III of Part IV provides additional assistance by listing four groups of personal-classification factors which may be useful in classifying an individual. These groups are: (1) personal traits, (2) leisure-time activities, (3) casual work experience, and (4) training courses, civilian, army, or navy. For example, suggested personal traits required for 1-X2, Recording Work, are as follows:

Persons with an occupationally significant combination of traits as:

- proficiency in spelling, punctuation, and grammar
- facility in using language or other meaningful symbols
- reading comprehension and speed
- legible handwriting
- finger dexterity
- memory for detail
- neatness and orderliness
- ability to do "desk" work¹¹

Under casual work experience, for example, a youth may have worked part-time as a newsboy with a route. A counselor will find in Part IV that such experience has transfer value to many occupational

¹⁰ *Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Entry Occupational Classification* (rev. ed.) (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1944), p. 2.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 161.

areas such as 1-X2.0, General Recording Work; 0-X7.1, Business Relations Work and Related; 0-X8, Managerial Work, etc.

It should be concluded, then, that the DOT is a counseling tool to be used as a basis for understanding, in an organized method, the 22,000 jobs and 40,000 or more job titles.

A more recent effort has been made by the staff of the Bureau of Employment Security, U.S. Department of Labor, to classify jobs. The effort has been called the *Functional Occupational Classification Project*. Its first report, now employed as a counseling tool, is described in the next subsection. Also, the student should be alerted to the fact that a revision of the DOT is under way. In revised form it will probably be more functional for counselor use, bearing closer resemblance to the present Part IV and/or *Worker Trait Requirements*.

Estimates of Worker Trait Requirements for 4,000 Jobs. The publication contains a total of 4,000 jobs (coded in Parts II and IV of the DOT) representing each occupational level. The jobs are arranged in alphabetical order. For each job, teams of trained and experienced raters have given estimates of worker traits required for that job. To avoid confusion as to variations of jobs, definitions in Part I of the DOT were used as a base. The six general components with specific traits are:

Training time

- General educational development
- Specific vocational training

Aptitudes (measured by General Aptitude Test Battery)

- Intelligence
- Verbal
- Numerical
- Spatial
- Form
- Clerical
- Motor coordination
- Finger dexterity
- Manual dexterity
- Eye-hand-foot coordination
- Color discrimination

Temperaments

- Variety and chance
- Repetitive, short cycle
- Under specific instructions
- Direction, control, planning

- Dealing with people
- Isolation
- Influencing people
- Performing under stress
- Sensory or judgmental criteria
- Measurable or verifiable criteria
- Feelings, ideas, facts
- Set limits, tolerance or standards

Interests

- Things and objects
- Business contact
- Routine concrete
- Social welfare
- Prestige
- People, ideas
- Scientific, technical
- Abstract, creative
- Non-social
- Tangible, productive satisfaction

Physical capacities

- Strength
- Climbing-balancing
- Stooping-kneeling
- Reaching-handling
- Talking-hearing
- Seeing

Working conditions

- Inside-outside
- Cold
- Heat
- Wet-humid
- Noise-vibration
- Hazards
- Fumes, odors, etc.

The following illustration will explain the usefulness of these estimates. Line 27, page 96, for example, lists Teacher, High School (0-31.01) (0-X6.00). In general educational development, the teacher is rated "6" which means the person should be able to apply principles of logical or scientific thinking to define problems, collect data, establish facts, and draw valid conclusions; interpret an extensive variety of technical instruction, in book, manual, mathematical, or diagrammatic form; deal with several abstract and concrete variables; make standard applications of advanced mathematics, as differential and integral

calculus; and have language development at a level required for comprehension of such periodicals as: *Saturday Review of Literature*, *Harper's*, *Scientific American*. The teacher should have from two to four years of specific vocational training. As measured by the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) the high school teacher may score within the following percentile limits:

Intelligence	67-90	Motor coordination	10-33
Verbal aptitude	67-90	Finger dexterity	10-33
Numerical aptitude	67-90	Manual dexterity	10-33
Spatial aptitude	33-67	Eye-hand-foot coordination	0-10
Form perception	10-33	Color discrimination	0-10
Clerical perception	33-67		

In other words, the high school teacher should be above average in intelligence, verbal aptitude, and numerical aptitude; and may be average or below in other aptitude areas. With respect to personality structure the high school teacher should have those traits needed for dealing with people and for arriving at generalizations, judgments, or decisions from situations involving sensory or judgmental criteria. The teacher needs to have social-welfare interests, as well as those interests useful in working with people and ideas. Light strength and talking and hearing physical capacities are required. Inside working conditions are part of high school teaching. Thus for each of 4,000 jobs, 48 worker traits, as illustrated above, are indicated.

Caution is suggested by the developers of this instrument. More research is needed for verification. At present these are only estimates of job requirements based on nation-wide ratings.

Occupational Trends and the Need for Education. The dynamic nature of our occupational structure is vividly described in a statement by Reintjes of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. He warns that we must be cautious about limiting vocational planning to a static occupational structure.¹²

We must guard against training an individual today for a job that may not exist tomorrow. We have the task of prescribing and executing an open-ended type educational program which will give him not only the flexibility and versatility to cope with change, but the creativity and leadership to bring it about. In contrast, we must avoid offering a closed-ended

¹² *Estimates of Worker Trait Requirements for 4,000 Jobs as Defined in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1956).

EMPLOYMENT IN MAJOR OCCUPATIONS—PER CENT CHANGE, 1955-65

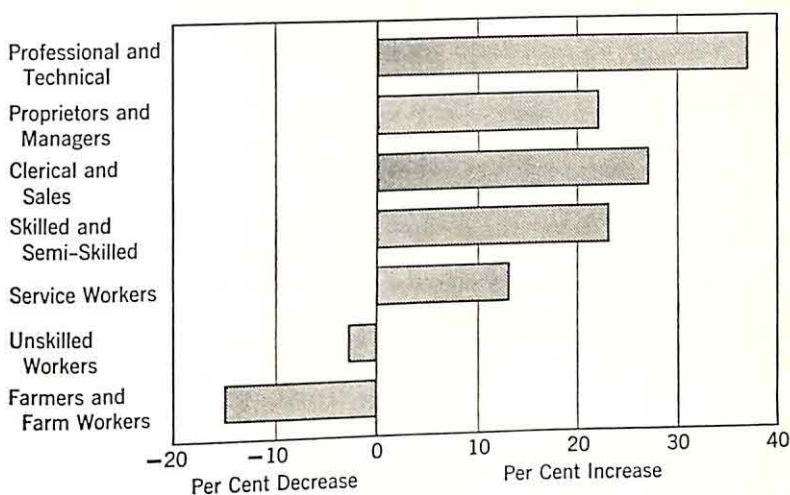


Fig. 13-2.

program which soon causes him to be swept aside by the fast-moving tide of progress.¹³

The report of the President's Committee on Education Beyond High School¹⁴ provides specific information with respect to the fact that the various career fields in our labor force will undergo great change. There will be a gradual decline in the unskilled levels and a rapid rise in professional and technical workers. The graph shown (Fig. 13-2) from this report is self-explanatory.

It is evident that such changes, as projected by the Bureau of Census and Labor Statistics, will be impeded unless advanced education can provide required training. The burden will fall upon technical schools, colleges, and universities. According to the report by the President's Committee it is expected that by 1960 there will be four million students in colleges and universities, and by 1970 enrollments may rise to eight million. With the number of people who wish collegiate education or its equivalent rising in staggering proportions the task of providing the quality of education demanded by them and our society becomes a primary responsibility facing each and every one of us.

¹³ J. F. Reintjes, *Educators Dispatch* (New London, Connecticut: Arthur C. Croft Publications, August 1957).

¹⁴ The President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School, *Education Beyond the High School* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957).

Sources of Educational and Occupational Information

Rather than attempting to list all of the sources of occupational information, a few selected references or source books, periodicals, and organizations are herewith given.

In 1956 the National Vocational Guidance Association, a division of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, published a bibliography of current occupational literature. In each issue of their periodical, *The Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, additional occupational literature is listed by type, publisher, and recommendation—according to standards of the Guidance Information Review Service. Each issue of the periodical includes a list of publishers also.

The materials published by the U.S. Department of Labor include such authoritative publications as the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, which describes more than 500 occupations, including trends in the fields; *The Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, which lists and classifies more than 40,000 jobs; *The Monthly Labor Review*, a periodical; and a new quarterly periodical, *The Occupational Outlook*. These materials should be the core of any library.

Other reference books and periodicals which provide sources are as follows:

- Max F. Baer and E. C. Roeber, *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use*, revised edition (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1958).
- Career Index*, published by Chronicle Guidance Publications, Moravia, New York, monthly, September–May.
- Gertrude Forrester, *Occupational Literature: An Annotated Bibliography* (New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1958).
- Glamour Magazine*, 420 Lexington Ave., New York 17, N.Y.
- Walter J. Greenleaf, *Occupations and Careers* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955).
- Robert Hoppock, *Occupational Information* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957).
- Mademoiselle*, 575 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.
- New York Life Insurance Company, *Guide to Career Information* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957). This book also gives a bibliography on career conferences, career planning, job hunting, and miscellaneous careers.
- Occupational Index*, an annotated bibliography of career information, published by Personnel Services, Inc., Peapack, New Jersey.
- Personnel and Guidance Journal*, published by the American Personnel and Guidance Association, Washington.
- Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave., Chicago 10, Illinois.
- Robert Shostack, *What to Read Guide* (Washington: B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1956).

Your Future Occupation, Benjamin Franklin Post Office, P.O. Box 7408, Washington 4, D.C. Materials for classroom use.

Standards for occupational literature have been developed by the National Vocational Guidance Association, and may be obtained from that organization.

Audio-Visual Materials, or information about them, may be obtained from:

- Bell and Howell Co., 7108 McCormick Rd., Chicago 45, Illinois.
- Carl Mahnke Productions, 215 E. 3rd St., Des Moines, Iowa.
- Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, N.Y.
- Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin, *Educators Guide to Free Films and Educators Guide to Free Filmstrips*.
- Educational Screen, 64 E. Lake St., Chicago, Illinois, *Blue Book of 16 mm Films*.
- Educational Film Library Association, 1600 Broadway, New York, N.Y. (Clearinghouse of information on audio-visual materials.)
- U.S. Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., *U.S. Government Films for School and Industry* (free).
- H. W. Wilson Co., 950 University Ave., New York 52, N.Y., *Educational Film Guide: I—Motion Pictures, and II—Film Strips*.

Local Business, Trade, Government, and Labor Organizations frequently cooperate in the establishment of occupational libraries. More important, it is necessary for vocational counselors to maintain a relationship with these organizations for purposes of keeping up to date on local employment and promotion practices.

Educational Opportunities. Teachers and counselors are expected to furnish information about institutions of higher learning as well as those schools or agencies training people for the skilled-clerical and equivalent level. The following classifications of training programs suggest the need for broad coverage of the area. Each counselor needs to become familiar with the details of all available schools within each category.

1. Universities and graduate schools.
2. Colleges.
3. Junior colleges.
4. High schools, including evening, adult, business, continuation, trade, and vocational schools.
5. Hospitals providing medical internships and nursing.
6. Professional and semi-professional schools (private), including art, business, chiropody, dancing, dentistry, dramatics, engineering

and technology, language, law, medicine, music, optometry, physical therapy, religion and theology, teaching, etc.

7. Vocational and trade schools in such areas as aviation, barbering, cosmetology, diesel mechanics, navigation, photography, radio and television repair, tailoring, watchmaking and jewelry, etc.

8. Work-experience programs.

9. Apprenticeship programs.

Selected References on Choosing a College. The best source of information about training programs is, of course, the catalogs and bulletins of the various colleges, universities, and training schools. In addition, the following source books and periodicals should be very helpful:

Accredited Higher Institutions (Washington: U.S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, Published annually).

Jessie P. Bogue (Ed.), *American Junior Colleges*, fourth edition, (Washington: American Council on Education, 1956).

Mary Irwin, (ed.), *American Universities and Colleges*, seventh edition (Washington: American Council on Education, 1956).

The Best College for You, Mademoiselle, 1954.

College Handbook (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 425 W. 117th St., 1953).

Directory of Technical Institutes (Washington: National Council of Technical School, 912—17th St., N.W., 1953).

Clarence E. Lovejoy, *Lovejoy's College Guide* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1952).

Universities of the World Outside U.S.A. (Washington: American Council on Education, 1950).

Nathan M. Cohen (Compiler), *Vocational Training Directory of the United States* (Washington: Nathan M. Cohen, 1434 Harvard St., N.W., revised 1955).

Scholarship Information. The following publications offer necessary information concerning scholarships. As there appears to be a significant new trend to help subsidize the education of the more capable students it is important that counselors make an effort to keep up to date in the field.

American Legion, *Need a Lift?* (Indianapolis, Indiana: National Child Welfare Division, August, 1956).

Financing Your Way Through College (Washington: B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1952).

Educational Testing Service, *Sponsored Program Summaries* (Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1957).

S. N. Feingold, *Scholarships, Fellowships and Loans*, three volumes (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Bellman Publishing Co.).

- Benjamin Fine, *American College Counselor and Guide* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955).
- Institute of International Education, *Handbook on International Study* (New York: 1 East 67th St., Institute of International Education, 1958), 450 pp.
- T. S. Jones, *Your Opportunity* (Milton, Massachusetts: P.O. Box 41, Theodore S. Jones).
- Lovejoy-Jones College Scholarship Guide* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1957).
- R. C. Mattingly, *Financial Aid for College Students: Graduate* (Washington: U.S. Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1957).
- R. L. Plant, *Opportunities in Interracial Colleges* (New York: National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students, 1951).
- R. C. Mattingly, *Scholarships and Fellowships* (Washington: U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 7, Government Printing Office, 1957).
- T. B. Wilkins, *Financial Aid for College Students: Undergraduate* (Washington: U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 19, Government Printing Office, 1957).
- Scholarships, Fellowships, and Loans News Service*, (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Bellman Publishing Co.).
- UNESCO, *Study Abroad, International Handbook: Fellowships, Scholarships, Educational Exchange* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1955-56).

Completing the Counseling Process

The past two sections described the occupational structure and sources of occupational and educational information. For the sake of continuity and integration, the reader should consider all of this information in light of its meaning in the counseling process. It is obvious that in accomplishing steps 7 and 8 (last chapter) the process is essentially that of continuously testing hypotheses (derived from the individual analysis, cooperatively made with and understood by the counselee) in the light of real and vicarious explorations into the fields of occupational and educational information. If the exploratory process has been systematically handled, modification of hypotheses as to satisfactory fields of vocational endeavor may be made with consequent narrowing of the range of choice. Furthermore, if the counselee's vocational development is matured to the point of making a tentative decision, then a choice of goals and determination of an educational and vocational plan may be made.

Only as the counselee is able to develop positive plans which are realistic and which satisfy his self-concepts can vocational counseling be helpful. It must be stated over and over that the process is dynamic and not static or rigid. New information, new attitudes, new jobs, and changing economic conditions will require continuous need for adjustment.

Steps 9 and 10 were adequately discussed in the last chapter. A section on follow-up completes this chapter.

The Follow-Up

Another important school-community function of guidance is the *follow-up* of the individual. The follow-up is tacit recognition of the fact that guidance is a continuous process. The consummation of its goal is determined by the degree to which the school helps the student to continue a satisfactory life career. A functional follow-up program should be concerned with those students who leave before they are graduated (drop-outs) as well as those who have completed their schooling. Hamrin and Erickson¹⁵ see the following as implicit in the follow-up program:

1. Continued interest in the individual gives him a sense of satisfaction and helps promote self-confidence.
2. The follow-up helps the school to evaluate its effectiveness in terms of course content and methodology. The success of the student indicates the effectiveness of the school program.
3. The follow-up program is a means for bringing the employer into the guidance program.
4. School-community relations are improved when the school demonstrates its concern about community members who also were once students.
5. The follow-up program facilitates the educational program by making the student an active member and giving him a sense of belonging.

Mechanics of a Follow-Up Program. Obviously a follow-up program will vary with the school in question. Information gathered in a follow-up study will thus depend upon the graduates or drop-outs in question, their families, friends, teachers, and employers.

One method in wide use at the present time is that of personally interviewing the graduate or drop-out in order to find out about his attitude concerning the value of the education he received while at school. Another method used is the questionnaire through which certain data about the individual are gathered.

Two types of questionnaires are now being used: (1) the "cover-all" type or the extensive questionnaire which attempts to gather complete data concerning the entire record of the former pupil in and out of school; (2) the more specific kind of questionnaire such as ask questions about the former student's views as to the effectiveness of the

¹⁵ S. Hamrin and C. E. Erickson, *Guidance in the Secondary School* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1939), pp. 318-321.

school program. Such specific questions as "How much real help did you get out of the school program?", "Are you better equipped for your particular job now as a result of your schooling?" are asked of the graduates and drop-outs. An illustration of this type of questionnaire is given (Form 13-1).

FORM 13-1
SUGGESTED FORM OF QUESTIONNAIRE FOR USE IN
FOLLOW-UP STUDIES OF FORMER HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Answers will be kept
confidential

Name of School _____ date _____

Mr. _____

Your Name: Mrs. _____

Miss _____

If "Mrs." Give your maiden name here:

Permanent address: _____ (searching you at any time)

Permanent address: _____
(This is the address through which we can be sure of reaching you at any time)

1. Are you A. ☐ Single
B. ☐ Married
C. ☐ Divorced or Separated
D. ☐ Widowed (Check one of these)

If married, how many children do you have? _____

2. What are you doing now? (Check one or more)
- | | |
|--|--|
| A. ☐ Working for pay, full-time | G. ☐ In armed forces |
| B. ☐ Working for pay, part-time | H. ☐ Not working, but looking for job |
| C. ☐ In school, full-time | I. ☐ Not working, not looking for job |
| D. ☐ In school, part-time | J. ☐ Other (Please describe) |
| E. ☐ Housewife | _____ |
| F. ☐ In business for self | _____ |

- [illegible]

[illegible]

4. What vocation did you select as your life work when you were in high school?

5. What kind of life work do you now actually expect to do?

6. What could the high school have done to make your experience here more helpful to you?



7. IF YOU DROPPED OUT OF HIGH SCHOOL, BEFORE GRADUATION, this is a very important question:

Will you tell us very frankly the *real* reason or reasons why you left high school? Your honest answer may help us to improve our high school. Some students leave high school because of financial need, ill health, dislike of school in general or some person in particular, failure in school work, desire to go to work, marriage, or change of residence (moving out of the district). Please think through your own experience and give the real reasons why you dropped out.

8. We would like to know how you rate the HELP your high school gave you on the following problems: (Please check the proper column for each item)

PROBLEM	The High School Helped Me			
	A Great Deal	Some-what	Little or None	(I'm Not Certain)
A. Using your spare time.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
B. Taking care of your health.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
C. Taking part in community and civic affairs.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
D. Marriage and family affairs.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
E. Getting a job.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
F. Getting along with other people.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
G. Preparing for further education.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
H. Understanding your abilities and interests.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
I. Ability to read well.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
J. Using good English.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
K. Using basic mathematical skills.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
L. Using your money wisely.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
M. Conducting your own business affairs....	_____	_____	_____	_____
N. Thinking through problems.....	_____	_____	_____	_____

9. If you now live in the school district, please tell whether this high school can be of further service to you?

(Only those who have had full-time employment experience since leaving high school need to answer the rest of our questions on the next page)

IF YOU HAVE HAD FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE

10. Please describe the jobs you have held since leaving high school:

Employer (or Firm)	Title of Job (or Kind of Work)	Date You Started	Months on Job	Approximate Weekly Wage
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

11. To what extent has your high school training helped you on your present job?
 A. ☐ A great deal. B. ☐ Some. C. ☐ Little or none. D. ☐ Not certain.
12. Have any specific high school courses or activities been of special value to you on your present job? (Check the blanks of those which have helped)
 A. ☐ English G. ☐ Mathematics M. ☐ Agriculture
 B. ☐ Speech H. ☐ Sports N. ☐ Homemaking
 C. ☐ Bookkeeping I. ☐ Science
 D. ☐ Typing J. ☐ Student Government (Write in other courses)
 E. ☐ Business Math K. ☐ Student Activities
 F. ☐ Shop Subjects L. ☐ High School Hobby
13. Which of the following helped you most in getting your first steady job after leaving high school? (Please check one or more)
 A. ☐ Parents or Relatives E. ☐ School (Teachers, Counselor, or other Person)
 B. ☐ Friends F. ☐ My Own Efforts
 C. ☐ Newspaper Ad G. ☐ Other: _____
 D. ☐ Public Employment Agency
14. Where was the knowledge or training needed in your present job gained? (Check one or more)
 A. ☐ High School C. ☐ My Hobbies E. ☐ At Home
 B. ☐ College D. ☐ Other Job Experiences F. ☐ On-the-Job Training

THAT'S ALL—AND THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP AND CO-OPERATION.*

* From W. H. McCreary and D. E. Kitch, *Now Hear Youth*, Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXII, No. 9 (Sacramento, California, 1953), pp. 56-58.

Many schools are now mailing double post cards in their follow-up programs. On one card is a definitive statement of the purpose of the study (interest in pupil's career). On the other card is printed the questionnaire to be filled in by the ex-pupil in his reply. Since the card already has been stamped and addressed and the questions used are simple ones (e.g., present position, salary, etc.), a high return has often proved the case whenever this system has been used.

A follow-up study serves to analyze the success of vocational education in terms of fitness for job, length of stay, etc. The information derived from the study is then a measure for keeping or revising a particular course of study. Results of the follow-up program are of value not only in terms of helping the graduate or drop-out but also in clarifying present objectives. Use of the information derived from a follow-up, further, provides information for future programs. In addition the former pupil quite often derives a sense of satisfaction from knowing that his school is still interested in his whereabouts and progress. Such interest also helps promote good school-community relations.

Summary

Choosing a life career is a fundamental problem facing both the student and the school. In the early grades vocational education is, perhaps, most effectively expressed through exploration and adjustment. On the secondary level there must be adequate instruction in job opportunities and placement and whenever possible in job training for all pupils.

Vocational guidance is a community affair and should be so considered in the classroom. The teacher can and should learn as much as possible about working conditions and existing job opportunities on as broad a level as possible in these days of mobile population and expanding technology. The individual and his grade level are the most effective criteria for vocational guidance. Aptitudes and abilities must be tested and interviews held to discuss the best possible use of what has been revealed in terms of future occupations.

The modern community—even if an agricultural one—is now highly mechanized. Training in industry literally requires instruction in technological concepts. A pupil needs to know what he can do and where best to do it. In addition he should know what possibilities exist for him, so as not to waste time and effort preparing for non-existent opportunities.

Suggested Problems

1. The son of the high school principal got the following scores on the Kuder Preference Record and the Differential Aptitude Test administered in the tenth grade. What tentative plans are warranted?

Kuder	Percentile	DAT	Percentile
Scientific	44	Verbal Reasoning	15
Outdoor	72	Numerical Ability	25
Computational	47	Abstract Reasoning	30
Clerical	65	Space Relation	22
Literary	30	Mechanical Reasoning	55
Artistic	80	Clerical Speed and Accuracy	40
Musical	72	Language Usage: Spelling	23
Persuasive	21	Language Usage: Sentences	12
Mechanical	92		
Social Service	47		

2. What are the differences of approach used by an employment interviewer and a vocational counselor?
3. Are the schools justified in ever attempting to change the occupational structure?
4. What are the occupational trends as indicated in the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*?
5. From one of the sources in the references given below ascertain and describe two standard systems for filing occupational information.
6. What are the advantages and disadvantages of work-experience programs?

Suggested Readings

- Billings, Mildred L., *Group Methods of Studying Occupations*. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Co., 1941.
- Blum, M. L., and Benjamin Balinsky, *Counseling and Psychology*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951.
- Forrester, Gertrude, *Methods of Vocational Guidance*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1951.
- Greenleaf, W. J., "Sociodrama as a Guidance Technique." *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 26 (Feb., 1951), pp. 71-85.
- Mahoney, H. J., *Occupational Information for Counselors: The Essential Content for Training Courses*. New York: World Book Co., 1952.
- Meyers, G. E., *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1941.
- Sanderson, H., *Basic Concepts in Vocational Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1954.
- Schneider, E. V., *Industrial Sociology*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957.
- Shartle, C. L., *Occupational Information*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1952.
- Super, D. E., *Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means of Psychological Tests*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949.
- U.S. Bureau of Labor, *Occupational Information for Counselors: An Annotated Bibliography*. Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, 1956.
- See also the references cited in the footnotes.

Chapter 14

Referral Resources

The school does not, or, can not, provide all the services needed by guidance personnel—especially teachers and counselors—to insure a full program of guidance for every pupil. Other agencies in the community share the responsibility for much of the diagnostic, preventive, developmental, and remedial services. Neither school nor community should attempt to independently provide all of the guidance services required for the optimum program. A comprehensive program becomes possible only when school and community (through designated agencies) work in harmony towards stated objectives. This chapter offers suggestions that should be useful to guidance personnel with respect to gathering information about and establishing working relations with those personnel and institutions which come under the heading of community resources.

Functions of Referral Resources

In the beginning part of this text it was stated that the three functions of guidance and pupil personnel work are: (1) understanding each pupil, or individual appraisal, (2) preventive, or providing a positive program for maximum development, and (3) remedial, or helping each pupil to improve his adjustment. Related community

resources such as school guidance services share the same purposes as well as serve the same functions. The traditional guidance program has usually employed referral services for two reasons: (a) identification of pupils with problems and (b) treatment or correction. It is equally important for school and community services to be utilized for maximum prevention of problems and individual development as well as for treatment and correction.

Use of Referral Services

A teacher or counselor newly employed by a school district would soon seek information about the services of the school and community if only for his own purposes. Figure 14-1 was designed to present a graphic picture of pupil personnel and related community services which are now available in many areas. It is readily seen that the teacher, in circle 2, has the closest working relationship with the pupil,

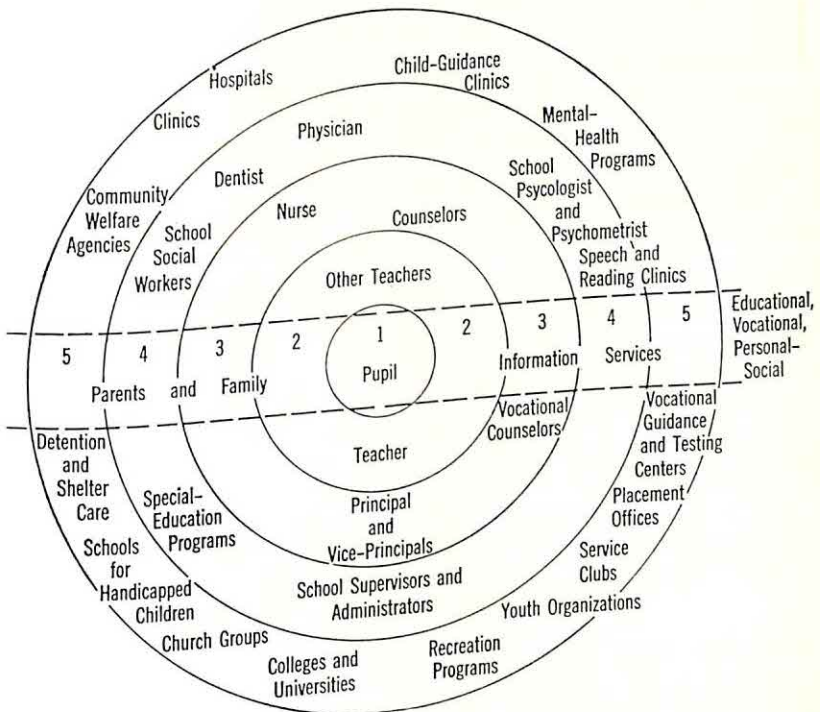


Fig. 14-1. Diagrammatic Representation of School and Community Resources.

and, therefore, bears the major responsibility for helping children achieve school success. Patience and understanding themselves, however, will not enable teachers to help all children or to provide all needed services. Hence, the teacher should be able to move easily into circle 3 for assistance from counselors, principals, and nurses. In most elementary schools the principal is most likely to be the first source of assistance. In other elementary and secondary schools, counselors, nurses, and, perhaps, remedial teachers would be immediately within reach. Then, in turn, depending upon established and recognized channels, the services of those specialists (in circle 4) who work out of district offices may be utilized. In some areas visiting teachers and school psychologists may be given responsibility for providing guidance services to the school. Public welfare organizations such as hospitals, social agencies, clinics, churches, recreation programs, protective services, and youth programs (see circle 5) compose the structure of the inter-related community services and facilities. It will be seen that members of the family are inter-related on all levels. Informational services must also be available at all levels, since so many educational, vocational, and personal decisions are dependent upon the accuracy and availability of valid information.

Communication and the Use of Referral Services. Files of information and different community services are of little or no value to a pupil unless provisions are made for their availability. Furthermore if the teacher is not free to confer with a counselor or the principal about a child, the value of any assistance is appreciably reduced. By the same token the counselor who remains unaware of the work of the school psychologist or of a local minister or of a recreation worker and is unable to communicate with these people makes the usefulness of referral services a limited affair. If files of occupational information, catalogs from training institutions, or lists of employment opportunities are not readily accessible, satisfactory communication between school and pupil is likewise handicapped.

Establishing Relationships. One way of establishing cooperative relationships is through case conferences. A case conference, or variation thereof, begins with the interested participation of two or more people (e.g., counselor and teacher, nurse and principal, etc.) in the problems of a given pupil. Any working together, say, between nurse and vice-principal may be formalized into a case conference. The important thing to remember is that the individual is helped from a number of sources in and out of the school, sources which must be

combined for maximum success. An excellent illustration of community teamwork has already been presented.¹ This particular program has been initiated by a principal. Teamwork is a necessary ingredient of guidance procedures, and such teamwork is based upon adequate working relationships. The conclusion to be arrived at, then, is that many combinations of in-school and out-of-school services may be established for referral and action.

The Process of Referral

In his daily contact with pupils, the alert teacher is able to identify those children who will need the kind of attention which is over and above the normal provision for individual help. In any given classroom are to be found pupils who may be facing decisions or choices of especial significance while other pupils may have only minor frustrations which can be simply resolved. Thus some pupils may require extensive help by a specialist, whereas others can be helped by the teacher alone.

Pupils with potential problems or important decisions to make are guided more easily when early recognition and quick action are taken in their cases. This is preventive guidance in its most effective sense.

In Chapters 4 through 7 basic concepts in individual development and methods for appraising the individual pupil were presented. It may be well for the reader to review these chapters at this point since they provide a basis for understanding behavior. Without this understanding it becomes difficult, if not impossible, to provide the help which comes under the heading of referral services. Following are summed up some of the most outstanding characteristics (of the individual) and situations which suggest or require referral.

- A. Physical characteristics.
Child deviates significantly from his group in age, height, weight, body structure, appearance, strength, coordination, lack of vigor, etc.
- B. Personal characteristics.
 1. Child is overachieving or underachieving according to his ability level; is superior or retarded; is afraid to try new things, easily discouraged, or unsatisfied with his performance; is significantly inconsistent in his performance or there is obvious dis-

¹ See Chapter 3, pp. 55-56.

- crepancy between performance in one subject as compared with general pattern; or has faulty study habits.
- 2. Child displays superior ability, talent or leadership as indicated by performance, interest, or aptitude.
- 3. Child displays unacceptable behavior of lying, stealing, fighting, and quarrelsomeness; or extreme shyness, fearfulness, and self-consciousness; or deviant sex behavior.
- 4. Child lacks friends, does not have healthy inter-personal relationships with adults, or is unduly influenced by group pressure.
- C. Situations.
 - 1. Child seems to lack adequate clothes, food, or other necessities.
 - 2. Child's cultural background may cause conflict with his peers, such as religious or language differences.
 - 3. Child's family and other environmental forces may reduce unduly his level of aspiration, according to ability level.
 - 4. Child has prolonged illness or there is serious illness or death in the family.
 - 5. Child has history of frequent changes of residence of family.
 - 6. Community has lack of proper recreational facilities.
- D. Exploratory experiences.
 Pupil's personal history, school grades, or interest and aptitude tests suggest exploratory work experiences, field trips, or conversations with representatives of vocational or avocational groups.

The second step in the referral process (identification is the first) is the decision of a teacher or counselor whether to take some kind of action or not. Taking action is one of the most important steps in the referral service. The teacher has for too long been forced to bear the brunt of the problem. He has been accused either of referring every and all cases for referral or conversely of never referring anyone for outside assistance.

Where school and services have been limited or the process of referral is cumbersome, the responsibility for making a recommendation is frequently bypassed or rejected. This avoidance of referral problems may be likened to putting off going to the dentist or having one's eyes checked. The local school and district should have a clear-cut policy on when and when not to refer a pupil to school guidance and/or community services.

In the past it has been customary for most schools or districts to develop their own special forms for requesting community or specialized assistance. These special forms include such elements as identifying data, apparent problem, and amplifying information. One sample re-

FORM 14-1
REFERRAL FORM

LOS ANGELES CITY SCHOOL DISTRICTS
DIVISION of ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
Send to: Guidance and Counseling Section
Room 224, Administration Building
☐ North Grand Avenue

REQUEST FOR INDIVIDUAL EXAMINATION

For.....
Address.....
Telephone.....
Birthplace.....
Birthdate.....
Verification.....

Reason for Referral:

☐

Health History:
Data and Comments from Health Card

Date of last Examination.....
Vision.....
Hearing.....
Other findings:

☐

.....Elementary Counselor
.....Date
.....School
.....Teacher
.....Grade

Date of previous Binet.....
Has this child been studied by or referred to
1 PTA Child Guidance Center.....
2 Other Clinic or Specialist.....
.....Principal

Teacher's Observation of Health

Appears to need medical attention yes-----no-----
Frequent absences Fatigue
Frequent colds Mouth breathing
Other

Speech defects.....Attends Speech Class.....
Physical handicap.....

Nervous or emotional symptoms (please check)

Nail biting	Crying
Enuresis	Temper tantrums
Vomiting	Withdrawal
Habit spasms or tics	Aggression
Excessive activity	Day dreaming
Other symptoms	

Form 719-705-1124-1-55

ferral form currently in use (Form 14-1) is given here; another was included in the Covina School District forms in Chapter 6.

The third step has two parts: willingness of school or community-service personnel to help and development of a tentative plan of action. The following example serves to illustrate this third step. A

FORM 14-1 (CONTINUED)

Family History (current data):															
Father's name.....				Birthplace.....				Occupation.....							
Mother's name.....				Birthplace.....				Occupation.....							
Stepparent or guardian.....				Birthplace.....				Occupation.....							
Names of other children in family				Age				Sisters							
Brothers				Age				Age							
School History:															
School	Dates	From	To	Grades Repeated	Grades Skipped	Attendance	Remarks								
Scholastic Capacity and Educational Achievement: (include recent group test results)															
Date	Grade	Test	Ch. Age	Ment. Age	Index	XA GP	Reading GP	Voc.	Comp.	Arithmetic GP	Reas.	Fund.	Lang.	Spell.	Other
Additional information:															
Language spoken in home.....															
Personality traits.....															
Social adjustment.....															
Outside activities—interests—occupations.....															
Home conditions.....															
What has been done to help this child.....															

teacher refers a pupil to the counselor because the child seems bored in class, refuses to complete assignments, and annoys the other pupils. Up till now the teacher has been unable to determine whether the child is bright, average, or dull. If the counselor accepts the responsibility to assist the pupil he begins to compile added data by which to make a decision with respect to referring the child to the school psychologist for further study or to develop a course of action which

he himself will take in handling the case. (This is equivalent to an "in-take interview" in an agency.) A case conference is also advisable at this stage.

Step four is covered by the provisions made for counseling; remedial instruction, treatment at a child-guidance clinic, or whatever other help is suggested by those concerned with the problem.

A follow-up is the fifth step. A follow-up by every one along the line who assumed responsibility for referral or giving assistance is advisable. If a child were being treated in a child-guidance clinic for example, then there should accompany such treatment close cooperation between therapist and teacher during and after treatment in order that some knowledge of the assistance rendered can be given to the teacher. A direct follow-up of the child has often provided much-needed security for him. It is equally important to make a follow-up contact with a pupil who was referred to a businessman to obtain occupational information or experience.

The staff at Michigan State University has prepared a list of helpful suggestions for making referrals for remedial assistance. In addition to the suggestions offered, the pamphlet strongly emphasizes in the referral process the need for the person being referred to recognize his problem, to want to work at it, and to know where he can get help, and finally to take steps to get assistance. Following are the suggested procedures for referral services.

1. Check to see if the school has used all its own available resources in helping the student before looking outside the school for help. Perhaps there are other steps which should be taken before referring the student to an outside agency or specialist.

2. Try discussing an incipient problem with an agency or specialist before its referral is urgent. Many agencies are willing to work in cooperation with the school in the area of prevention.

3. Try to discover what persons have had contact with the parent or student in regard to the problem, and what results were obtained from these contacts before making a referral. A case conference may result in the early and appropriate use of resources in the school and community, and will also serve to bring together information about the student in usable form, and to coordinate the efforts of the total school. Let your right hand know what your left hand is doing.

4. Designate one person to be responsible in working with the parent and student in developing a referral. All others will then keep that person informed of new developments.

5. Learn whether a community agency is already working with the family, for a consultation with that agency is the proper first step in considering a referral in such cases.

6. It is unwise and impractical to refer a student to community agencies without the knowledge, consent, and cooperation of his parents. Many

child guidance agencies will not accept students for treatments unless parents cooperate fully and are willing to present themselves for help too. Check on the policy of your local agencies in this regard.

7. Keep in mind when telling students or parents about available services, in the school or in the community, that the teacher should explain both the functions and the limitations of these services. Do not give the impression that any specialist or agency has all the answers and can work wonders.

8. Do not coach a student or parent regarding how they might "wrangle" hard-to-get services. Such "coaching" is not professional.

9. Let the student or his parents make their own arrangements for service whenever possible. Do not "spoon feed" the student by being more "helpful" than necessary.

10. Remember that in some cases, however, help may be needed by very immature, dependent, or ill students or parents in arranging an appointment or even in arranging transportation to the agency.

11. Secure a signed consent from the student's parents before releasing information to a social agency. This is a wise precaution in most cases.

12. Help the agency or specialist by indicating which person should be the point of contact representing the school. This person will supply additional information as needed, and will receive agency reports which he in turn will share, as seems indicated, with others on the school staff.²

Methods for Becoming Acquainted with Community Resources

Each professional worker or service should have a good working relationship with each fellow-worker within his circle and the circles adjacent to his. (See Fig. 14-1.) It would be better still if such a relationship extended to all of the personnel and services named in the figure. There is no doubt now that excellent working relationships should be established for all services provided within a school. Following are suggestions for locating, studying, and utilizing resources.³

Publications. School, community, business, and governmental libraries offer the most readily available sources for gathering information. Most city, county, and state governments publish directories of welfare, health, and recreational services. Telephone and business directories, newspaper files, and brochures published by community, business, or educational organizations provide other sources.

² *How to Make Referrals* (Bureau of Research and Service, College of Education, Michigan State University, 1956), p. 4.

³ *Community Resources in the Guidance Program* (Bureau of Research and Service, College of Education, Michigan State University, 1956), pp. 1-7.

Surveys. If published directories are not complete, surveys may be organized to ascertain all additional resources. Coordinating councils, chambers of commerce, Parent-Teacher Associations, and local colleges can be canvassed for help and cooperation. Pupils may be utilized for surveying resource people for occupational information.

Workshops, Field Trips, and Work Experience. Many colleges and universities offer either on-campus or extension courses to help familiarize teachers and counselors with community resources. Where college courses are not available or where the local district wishes to accept the challenge, field trips, workshops, and special days may be planned. In some communities chambers of commerce or other business organizations often have helped plan programs to orient teachers to the business and industrial life of the area.

Many communities have *Coordinating Councils* or community welfare associations which not only supply schools with lists of services but many times offer organized workshops and field trips. Guidance workers should become active members in these organizations whenever possible.

In many areas professional guidance organizations sponsor special workshops or conferences to help their members establish working relationships with community agencies and to learn of educational and employment practices.

Types of Community Resources

As the kinds and characteristics of community resources vary from one guidance worker and from one area to another, so might any classification of these services vary one from another. Each guidance worker or each school should thus establish a functional file of referral services and an equally functional list of sources which will supply materials for a practical educational and vocational library.

No attempt has been made here to present an exhaustive list of resources. What is being suggested here is rather representative materials which need to become familiar to every guidance worker. It is again pointed out that guidance specialists or administrators serve as a clearing house for initial referrals made by teachers; vocational and educational information should, however, be available to every person in the school.

Family-Welfare Services

Since the home exerts the greatest influence in the development of each child, agencies which serve the home deserve primary recognition. In the broad sense, all services described in the remaining sections of this chapter are child-welfare services. The material in this section will nevertheless be more specific.

Family Service Agency. This national organization offers case-work services to foster development of wholesome family life and helps individuals use their own energies and available community resources toward solving their own problems. It is non-sectarian and serves all ages and groups.

Church-Sponsored Services. All churches offer some type of assistance to their members. Organizations such as Jewish Family Service and Catholic Welfare Bureau, Lutheran Welfare Services, Welfare Program of the "Mormon" Church, and the Salvation Army are all well-organized programs of assistance. If a local church does not have organized services, the local minister, priest, or rabbi may provide or help a member of his congregation find assistance.

Governmental Agencies. In addition to direct assistance given by federal, state, and local governmental agencies, many of these agencies have social-welfare workers who will give instructions and help for improving family living.

Community Agencies. The Parent-Teacher Associations, YMCA, YWCA, Mental Health Associations, and informally organized groups of parents of handicapped children are but a few of the many organizations providing positive influences for improving home relations. These organizations are more than willing, if not eager, to work cooperatively with the school.

Sources of Pamphlets on Family Life. In addition to direct assistance, reading materials may be provided. The following organizations develop and distribute materials.

Association for Family Living
28 East Jackson Boulevard
Chicago 4, Illinois

Child Study Association of America
132 East 74th Street
New York 21, New York

Child Welfare League of America
24 West 40th Street
New York 18, New York

Children's Bureau
U.S. Department of Health, Welfare and Education
Washington 25, D.C.

Family Service Association of America
192 Lexington Avenue
New York 16, New York

National Association for Mental Health
10 Columbus Circle
New York 19, New York

National Congress of Parents and Teachers
600 South Michigan Boulevard
Chicago 5, Illinois

Public Affairs Committee
22 East 38th Street
New York 16, New York

Science Research Associates
57 West Grand Avenue
Chicago 10, Illinois

State Charities Aid Association
105 East 22nd Street
New York 10, New York

The Play Schools Association Inc.
119 West 57th Street
New York 19, New York

Information about Special Educational Services

The public schools, charged with the responsibility of educating the children and youth of the nation, must not only be skilled in dealing with learning problems but must also serve as a reservoir of information for those who are ineligible for schooling or who seek equivalent or additional training. It is the responsibility of the teacher, counselor, and psychologist working together to handle developmental and remedial instruction.

Schools for Exceptional Children. Descriptions of all public or private schools for exceptional children worthy of recognition by the school district should be included in the files of the school psychologist or social worker. Caution, however, should be exercised against endorsement of any school, especially one which bears no certification.

Mentally retarded, cerebral palsied, blind and visually handicapped, deaf and hard of hearing, crippled, and other children with health handicaps require special programs. Information about these special programs whether they are supplied by the school district or by other public and private agencies should be available to parents.

Information about each school should include, in addition to name and address, ages served, day or residence school, kinds of services offered, fees, and training and experience of staff.

Remedial Instruction and Speech Correction. Parents and students frequently ask for names of clinics, tutors, or speech therapists who may give special assistance. If the school district does not have these services, outside services should be suggested. Some people may elect non-school services. Many times colleges or universities are the best sources of remedial instruction in reading, language arts, mathematics, etc., as well as speech correction.

Vocational Counseling and Placement Services

Each school counselor at the secondary level will need to have at his finger tips information about local private and public vocational-guidance centers. Counselors, librarians, and teachers, as well as the students and parents, will always be seeking more occupational information.

Vocational Counseling Centers. As a supplement to those services provided by the public schools, colleges, and universities, public-supported agencies and government services offer vocational counseling—including aptitude testing. Many individuals and groups may also offer these services on a private basis. Private individuals and organizations should, however, meet professional standards.

For those persons seeking locations of help in making vocational choices, The American Personnel and Guidance Association, Inc., 1934 O Street, N.W., Washington 5, D.C., has published a directory of *Vocational Counseling Agencies*.

Most states have vocational-rehabilitation programs for helping the handicapped to become occupationally established.

The local office of the state employment service should also be consulted.

Placement Services, including state employment services, school and public placement services, and reputable private agencies, should be

cataloged. Personnel and industrial-relations directors of local businesses, industries, and governmental agencies may supply placement or employment information pertinent to their function.

The responsibility for maintaining files of employment opportunities is that of the school placement officer. In many schools this position is combined with that of vocational counselor or with that of supervisor of work-experience program. In high schools of limited enrollment, a teacher usually handles this task.

Medical Services

As nearly all schools have nurses, the process of handling medical referrals devolve upon her. If the district has physicians and dentists, periodic examinations may be made and referral of pupils with health problems to the proper medical services may be accomplished—in cooperation with parents.

National, state, and local health offices may provide information about health services. County medical associations will have needed facts about hospitals, clinics, and physicians in the area. Associations such as those on tuberculosis, cancer, venereal diseases, and heart disease provide special information.

Where parents are unable to pay for medical services it sometimes falls upon the guidance staff or school administrator to find community agencies which will provide financial assistance.

Mental-Hygiene Services

Referrals of children and youth who manifest behavior disorders are possibly the most frequent of all referrals. School psychologists and social workers, ideally speaking, diagnose and treat minor forms of maladjustment but refer more serious ones to clinics. In the absence of any such help the school administrator or counselor handles the problem in the best way possible.

Child-Guidance Clinics. In communities where there exist child-guidance clinics the services of a clinical team of psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, and psychiatric social workers may be available. Improved psychotherapy and new medicines are not only helping prevent impairment or breakdown but are greatly increasing the chances of recovery of those already ill. Lack of facilities and specialized staffs

still remains as the chief obstacle to the establishment of effective guidance services in this area.

Hospitals for the care and treatment of the mentally ill may also have outpatient services available to the public. Such facilities have already provided invaluable services. Their cooperation should be sought wherever they are available.

State Departments of Mental Hygiene, Mental Health Associations, Psychiatric and Psychological Associations will provide information upon request to those interested and needing such services.

Detention and Shelter Care

Along with the previously mentioned services, courts and law-enforcement agencies are concerned with the prevention of crime as well as apprehension and correction of law violators. School administrators, and school social workers and attendance supervisors, have the task of maintaining good liaison with protective services. Juvenile and probation officers, in turn, must work closely with schools. One report states that, "More and more communities are responding to the impetus of skillful community council guidance. Agencies are beginning to examine their own and others' function critically in order to make possible frequently reviewed agreements on inter-agency referrals."⁴

Casework and Group Guidance. Protecting the community from delinquency before it breaks out by means of adequate casework is far less expensive than detention, a fact never ignored by those in the protective services. Group-guidance activities in which trained group workers befriend groups of potentially problem young pupils are another preventive function in use by police and probation departments.

Detention. Handling youngsters who are held in detention and providing effective services for releasing these children back to school and family are two major problems which demand specialized services. Since most detention centers have schools and as most children when released return to schools, cooperative and smooth-working relation-

⁴ Gertrude M. Hengerer (Ed.), *California Children in Detention and Shelter Care* (California Committee on Temporary Child Care, 401 State Office Building, Sacramento 14, California, 1955), pp. 107-108.

ships between school districts and supervisors of the detention centers are to be sought whenever possible.

Shelter Care. Many children often through no fault of their own become wards of the courts. Typical of this situation is the child whose parents can not or will not support him. Such children may be placed temporarily in juvenile halls or later in a subsidized family home or another shelter facility.

Some of the children may have been initially identified at school as needing help and so are referred through the administrator or school social worker. Helping a child thus placed to adjust to new surroundings and readjust in a school becomes a two-way referral job.

Religious Groups

Church and state in America have traditionally been separated. However, this separation in no way eliminates cooperative relationships between schools and churches. In addition to the welfare services previously described many churches provide pastoral counseling, youth group activities, and positive influences which can not be found elsewhere. Most important, the churches offer religious convictions which give direction to living in the lives of their believers.

Since the church may be so influential in the lives of its members, a church leader, many times, may become the only avenue of contact with a person. Counselors and other pupil personnel workers should not hesitate to maintain positive relationships with local church leaders.

School counselors, too, have many contacts with religious problems as teen-agers express doubts or re-affirm beliefs in the process of developing personal value-systems. Awareness of some of the tenets of local churches makes it possible for the counselor to help the counselee discuss his feelings and thoughts. Helping a youthful person develop an enduring value-system requires the counselor to follow the best principles of counseling.

Youth Organizations

A rich source for providing positive influences in the lives of children and youth is organized-group programs. Typical of these are the Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, 4-H Clubs, YMCA, and YWCA. Elementary and

secondary school counselors may help many boys and girls find satisfying group activities. In turn, youth leaders may be very helpful to counselors in providing information about the children so needed in good developmental guidance.

Recreation Programs

Many schools have utilized recreational programs as both prevention and remediation of community problems. Playground leaders like other youth-group leaders develop personal relationships with children which many counselors behind a desk find difficulty in matching. Cooperative inter-relationship is, therefore, necessary.

Recreation, playgrounds, and park departments at the local, state, and national level will supply, upon request, descriptions of services and facilities. Not only should such files of information be available to the pupils, but counseling may be offered to help them understand and utilize these programs.

Counseling for choice of hobby or avocation may be of equal importance with choice of vocation. All of the determinants which obtain in vocational development may be present in leisure-time activities.

Service Clubs

There are usually service clubs within all small and large cities, or farmers' groups within the rural areas, which will facilitate cooperation between school and community. Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, Chambers of Commerce, Farm Bureaus, and many other similar organizations are interested in guidance activities. Many of them are just waiting to be asked by the principal or his designate as to how help may be given. Speakers for career days, contributions to occupational libraries, field trips to industries, and many other vocational-guidance helps are provided by these clubs.

In the area of child-welfare services, arrangements have been made by service clubs for providing medical service and giving Christmas boxes and gifts of clothing, as well as other gestures of kindness. There are also instances where several organizations have banded together to employ and support community guidance workers. In one situation known to the authors two superior counselors have been so employed and as a result many new services have been provided as well as better liaison established between homes and police departments, between children and schools, and churches and youth. Many

potentially explosive youth groups have been redirected into more socially acceptable activities as a result of the patient and skillful services of these counselors—thanks to the service clubs.

Summary

The community is the primary area in which the individual operates. An understanding of its services is thus vital to the guidance worker. It is these services that must be examined in order for guidance to be effective. All aspects of the community are inter-related, and none may be ignored in an appraisal of the individual.

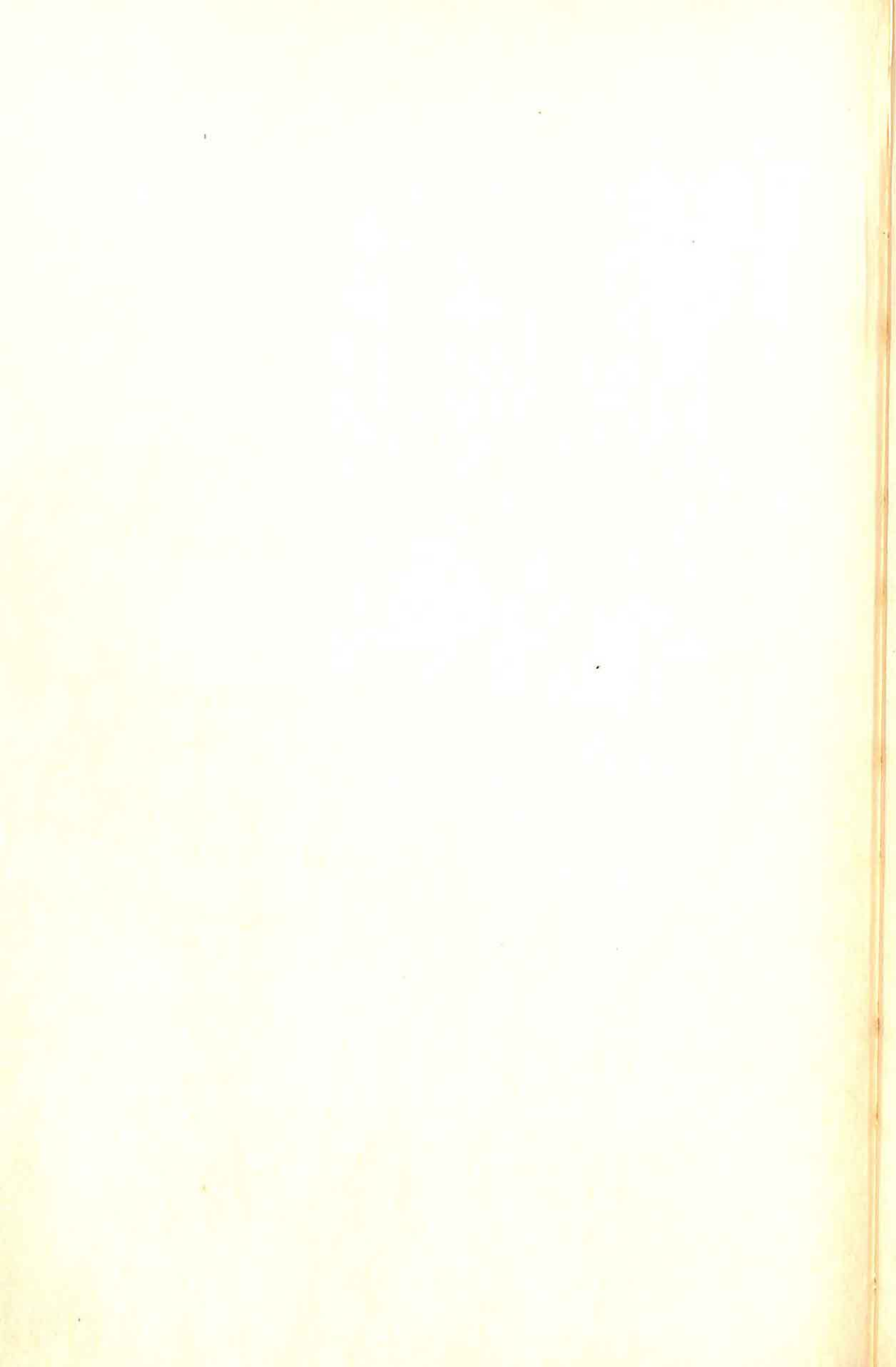
The school alone is unable to prepare the individual effectively for his future role in the community. An organized school-community program is required for this fundamental task. Such services as job placement, medical and psychiatric help, and legal and social-worker assistance are indispensable to the proper functioning of the school. The guidance worker along with others must strive always to maintain the highest level of school-community cooperation.

Suggested Problems

1. What guidance specialists serve as referral sources for the teacher? Describe the role of each.
2. Attend a meeting of a community coordinating council or welfare planning committee and report their functions.
3. Outline a procedure for collecting and filing information about community referral agencies.
4. What should a grade-counselor do with a pupil who is caught three times stealing food out of lunch boxes?
5. Name and describe the standards for good occupational materials.

Suggested Readings

- Hamilton, G., *Theory and Practice of Social Case Work*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1954.
- Redl, F., and W. W. Wattenberg, *Mental Hygiene in Teaching*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1951.
- Zeitz, D., *Child Welfare: Principles and Methods*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1959.
- See also references cited in the chapter and publications of referral sources printed by local welfare councils.



Part V

*Evaluating
and
Improving
the
Guidance
Services*

Chapter 15

Evaluating and Improving the Guidance Program

The seriousness of the need for improved guidance services in every area of education has already been indicated in previous chapters. Such improvement, in turn, depends in large measure upon an enhanced program of evaluation both of the individual and of the process of guidance itself. Chapters 6 and 7 dealt with techniques for the appraisal and development of the individual with respect to the stated goals of guidance. The present chapter first discusses possible ways and means by which to evaluate the total guidance program and then presents in-service and counselor training programs as ways for improving guidance services.

Evaluation and the Guidance Effort

Effective guidance procedures literally depend upon continuous objective study of the quality of its procedures and objectives. While related to the conventional school testing and examination program, this evaluation must obviously be more extensive in design. Evaluation of the guidance effort is defined as the process of determining the value of the total guidance program, while measurement ascertains the quantity of a definable aspect of the program. Thus evaluation is

concerned with both the purposes and the processes of guidance, and measurement with enumeration and analysis of quantifiable data.

Studies on Evaluation. Most of the studies on evaluation have appeared to date to have been somewhat narrowly conceived. Theoretical proposals, it is true, have been scrutinized and specific techniques investigated, but not many studies have been conducted with a view to appraising the total guidance program within the context of the educational process itself. As Froelich sums it up:

Guidance programs have had the benefit of relatively few evaluative studies to point out strengths and weaknesses. It is probable that the results of fewer than 200 studies are available, of which a large number are concerned with only a single aspect of the total guidance program. A review of the literature leads to the conclusion that in the past we have had to depend on studies of specific techniques for inference as to the benefits and limitations of a total program of guidance.¹

There is little doubt that studies which attempt to evaluate total programs of guidance will face serious obstacles. Nevertheless the importance of such evaluative studies, which attempt to see the whole problem, can not be overdrawn. Wrightstone² holds that an important research problem lies in the very formulation of methods needed to approach the problems of evaluation. This same author writes in this connection that research is required to obtain a reasonably comprehensive list of basic goals of general education in addition to those of specific subject areas. And it is only too obvious that a program of research is now required to determine the best ways of integrating and interpreting the results of evaluation.

Evaluation of Progress. Evaluation as a technique for appraising progress in any area of education is based upon objective measurement of the changes which have taken place as a result of a given course of action. It thus can be divided into four phases: (1) determination of the changes which should take place; (2) measurement of the changes which have taken place; (3) assessment of the effectiveness and/or desirability of such changes; and (4) indication of new proposals to further enhance the particular area evaluated. These four phases are as applicable to an entire program as they are to any part of it. Dunsmoor and Miller, for example, indicate the

¹ C. P. Froelich, *Evaluating Guidance Procedures* (Washington: Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, January 1949), p. 1.

² J. W. Wrightstone, "Evaluation" in W. S. Monroe (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1950), pp. 403-406.

nature of the changes which should emerge (and which can be studied) from a well-organized guidance approach:

1. Teachers take a greater personal interest in their students as individuals, and know more about them.
2. Teachers do better teaching, and while their students maintain or improve the standards of their classwork, the subject-matter fetish tends to disappear.
3. Students are better adjusted to school and are happier in their environment.
4. A better school spirit prevails, since there are more opportunities to understand clearly the school's purposes and to assume responsibilities for their realization.
5. There are fewer student failures.
6. Students know how to plan their work better and form more thorough habits of workmanship.
7. A greater percentage of the students have a systematic plan for completion of their high school work and rarely, if ever, does a student come to the end of his high school career without having taken subjects adapted to this plan.
8. Many more (high school) students have carefully-thought-out vocational goals or directions, as well as plans for the transition from school to work or college.
9. There is a greater sense of responsibility and a more closely knit, co-operative approach by the faculty in providing for the welfare of all students.
10. There are more friendly working relationships between students and teachers.
11. More and more do parents come to feel that the school is *giving* their child individual attention concerning abilities, achievement, interests, needs, and plans.
12. There is greater desire by teachers to secure more complete information regarding their students.³

Problems and Factors in Evaluation

In theory, at least, the conduct of evaluation appears simple enough: Expected outcomes are measured against the background of stated objectives. The changes which have coincidentally or otherwise taken place as a result of a certain activity or activities serve as a basis for the measurement. Actually, however, the problem is more complicated than it appears at first glance.

There is, for instance, the question of adequate personnel to

³ C. E. Dunsmoor and L. M. Miller, *Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers* (Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Text Book Company, 1949), p. 377.

evaluate a given program. At present in the schools there is a shortage of people to perform the educational tasks required of them. Those counselors, teachers, and administrators already on the job simply do not have the time necessary for adequate evaluation. And as the surge of enrollment climbs higher and higher the prospects are for less, not more, personnel and greater responsibilities heaped upon those already in service. In the foreseeable future, then, the work of those in the schools will be concentrated upon providing the essentials of instruction. Most school budgets can not support evaluative studies.

There are alternatives which may be considered in view of the necessity of evaluation. "Do-it-yourself" programs can furnish the means to evaluate school activities. Those on the spot can incorporate evaluation right into their instructional program. The following procedures offer means for setting up an evaluation program within existing school limitations:

1. All members of the school staff are appointed to committees which explore the different phases of guidance. These study committees then make recommendations to a coordinating guidance committee.
2. A single small committee of staff members under the chairmanship of the principal studies existing conditions. Their recommendations are, after the approval of the total school staff, submitted to the administrators for action.
3. One of the school counselors is assigned to make evaluative studies, working under the direction of the principal or a guidance committee. After the data have been collected and analyzed, they are presented to the school staff for study and approval, either under plan No. 1 or No. 2 or both.

Some writers in the area have also suggested the use of consultants on the outside to come into the district and conduct a survey of the educational program. When such consultants have been used in the past, however, it has usually been for a district-wide survey with the result that the individual schools have not been fully covered in terms of their own programs.

In some cases school districts have combined the work of the consultant with that of the local directors, counselors, teachers, etc. This plan would appear to have some merit since it actually does provide outside help, but adapted to local school needs. In this connection it seems advisable to have local guidance people who know their school's needs work with college guidance staffs, county, or state consultants in the interest of all concerned.

With education hard pressed for buildings and teaching personnel to staff them, little money is left over for services still considered by

some as secondary. The viewpoint is generally that it is more expedient to employ another counselor or pupil personnel worker—even on a part-time basis—rather than evaluate the existing program. Guidance is a primary school service as necessary as any other but it will take time and patience to orient many administrators to this viewpoint. More and more school systems, it must be added in all fairness, are expanding their guidance programs, both in personnel and in services.

Establishing Objectives and Criteria

As stated from the outset, there still exists some controversy as to what the objectives of guidance are or even should be. Such a situation is understandable in view of the problems and outlooks involved. For example, in one school guidance is thought of as the testing program itself, in another as a program of discipline, and in yet another a means for outlining courses on the secondary level.

Problems as well as perspectives vary from school to school. In one school the most important pupil personnel problem may be drop-outs, whereas in another it may be academic standards or vocational planning and placement. Obviously local needs will help determine the importance of any problem.

Consider again, in this matter of objectives, the differences of policies and practices which obtain between the elementary and secondary schools as well as between one elementary school and another. Such divergences inevitably bring about contradictory views as to what goals must be set for the school. Apropos of this situation, the current literature in guidance does not afford any significant evaluative studies of effective elementary school guidance programs. Add to this the fact that guidance at the elementary level has been so inter-related with instruction, special education, remedial instruction, and the like that the reason for the lack of consistent programs becomes clear enough.

Statement of Criteria. Objectives are meaningful only insofar as they help facilitate the optimum development of each pupil. This applies equally well to any and all educational services, whether in or out of the province of guidance proper. All guidance services need to emphasize the three cardinal functions of guidance: (1) understanding each pupil; (2) preventing him from being overwhelmed by problems through provision of a positive developmental program; and (3) providing such special help or services as may be required.

The next step after stating the goals of guidance is to restate them into criteria for evaluating the guidance program. Objectives, of course, will not be the same in each school but they can be made into clear statements of criteria. For example, a goal of a particular guidance program may be that of increasing the holding power of the school. The criterion, then, would be the extent to which drop-outs are reduced.

Woolf and Woolf have suggested these criteria for evaluation:

1. The extent to which pupil personnel services are used by pupils, faculty and administration.
2. The quality of cooperation among pupil personnel staff members and faculty and administration.
3. The professional growth of staff members in terms of training, recognition and memberships in professional organizations.
4. Demand for increased services by pupils, parents, teachers and community leaders.
5. Proper balance between facilitative guidance services and the main instructional program.
6. The extent to which the program has retained pupils, placed them in their optimum learning situation, increased their achievement, helped them make wiser choices of courses, occupational programs, improved their attitude toward school, etc.⁴

The above suggestions of objectives and criteria as well as others of the same nature must precede any discussion of methods. They are in fact necessary since they explain what the guidance program is trying to accomplish, and why.

Gathering and Evaluating the Data. Throughout his school years the pupil comes under the appraisal, instruction, and advisement of many different people; people who help shape his character in many ways. From parent and teacher and administrator and guidance personnel, the pupil receives his course of direction and purpose. There is thus an obvious difficulty involved in *isolating the variables which influence each pupil*. Who is to say whether a student's conduct in school is the result of a session with the counselor or the fact that he found a friend or conditions at home improved? This problem is particularly difficult in the classroom wherein a multiplicity of variables are continually in operation. (Many teachers are frankly puzzled by coincidental learning on the part of a student.)

Another important problem is that of establishing the amount of lapsed time necessary for determining the influence of the guidance program upon the individual. In other words, are the effects of

⁴ M. D. Woolf and J. A. Woolf, *The Student Personnel Program* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1953), p. 389.

guidance apparent during the first year after high school or must one wait, say, ten or even twenty years before evaluation. One answer seems to be in the provision of a regular and systematic follow-up for each pupil. And still another factor involved in gathering data is that concerned with the approach or procedures to be used.

Wrenn has suggested three procedures: (1) survey, (2) experimental cross-section, and (3) developmental. In the last, the students are studied throughout their years of development.⁵ Froehlich, in his extensive review of the literature, has classified procedures for gathering data as follows:

1. External criteria, the do-you-do-this? method.
2. Follow-up, the what-happened-then? method.
3. Client opinion, the what-do-you-think? method.
4. Expert opinion, the "Information Please" method.
5. Specific techniques, the little-by-little method.
6. Within-group changes, the before-and-after method.
7. Between-group changes, the what's-the-difference? method.⁶

Evaluative Techniques

Dewey has defined a technique as the "intelligent means and methods" whereby to secure results.⁷ In other words techniques (technics, as Dewey called them) facilitate both the appraisal and development of the individual not only as a pupil but as a person as well.

In analyzing means and methods of evaluation it seems reasonable for present purposes, at least, to reduce them to two general headings; namely, *survey* and *experimental*.

Survey techniques are those based upon communication, i.e., the questionnaire, the interview, and the like. These techniques are designed for the purpose of collecting information concerning knowledge of, attitudes and opinions about the nature and quality of the guidance function.⁸ For instance, a given school district may decide to draw

⁵ For further elaboration of this important area see C. G. Wrenn, "A Critique of Methods Used in Follow-up Studies of Students," *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. X (May 1940), pp. 357-363.

⁶ C. P. Froehlich, *Evaluating Guidance Procedures, A Review of the Literature* (Washington: Misc. No. 3310, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1949), 26 pp.

⁷ John Dewey, *Individualism—Old and New* (New York: Minton, Balch and Co., 1930), p. 29.

⁸ See Chapter 13 for an illustration of a follow-up questionnaire relative to vocational guidance.

up a questionnaire by which pupils, teachers, and administrators, for example, can present their views on the guidance program. On the other hand, although still employing the same method, i.e., survey, another school district may answer a questionnaire which has been prepared by a consulting organization hired to do the job.

The experimental method for its part is designed to control the known variables more closely than does the survey method. This purpose is facilitated through such practices as the selection of two matched groups in which one group is provided with guidance services and the other left to its own resources. The results of tests given these groups are then used to measure the effectiveness of the guidance services which were employed in the experiment. Another example of the experimental method is found in the presentation of diagnostic tests to a group of pupils before these pupils are provided with certain guidance practices. The tests are repeated after a given time period in order to determine the degree of improvement that can be expected as a result of these services.

Section G of Evaluative Criteria.⁹ Current research seems to indicate that Section G developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards is perhaps the most widely known evaluative instrument in use today. Section G is a rating form with space for comments wherein local staff members and expert evaluators may record their considered judgments about the guidance program. The following areas are covered.

- I. General Nature and Organization
- II. Guidance Staff
 - A. Guidance Leadership
 - B. Referral Consultants
 - C. Teacher Participation
- III. Guidance Services
 - A. Individual-Inventory Services
 - B. Informational Services
 - C. Counseling Services
 - D. Placement Services
 - E. Follow-Up and Adjustment Services
- IV. Special Characteristics of the Guidance Services
- V. General Evaluation of the Guidance Services

⁹ Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria*, 1950 Edition, (Washington: American Council on Education, 1950).

The check list in the above technique is one which uses a five-point scale based upon such items as the following: "Guidance services assist in orienting new pupils to the school." One of the evaluative questions of Section G is as follows: "How well do the guidance services meet the needs identified in Section B, 'Pupil Population and School Community,' and in Section C, 'Educational Needs of Youth?'" Both items and questions are obviously designed to facilitate observation and judgment of the results of those services contributed by guidance personnel.

While an excellent instrument of evaluation in many ways, Section G does have certain weaknesses. It is not, for example, applicable at the elementary level, thus narrowing its range of effectiveness. In addition, it fails to cover the specialized psychological and child welfare-services and the in-service training programs. Many people, however, have either accepted or overlooked these shortcomings because of the other real values of Section G.

California Check Lists for Appraising a Secondary School Guidance Program. Another instrument for evaluating guidance programs was developed by Kitch and McCreary of the California Bureau of Guidance.¹⁰ It consists of check lists of 8 to 15 items covering the following aspects of the program:

1. Administration of a Guidance Program
2. Orientation Program
3. Group Guidance Program
4. Procedures for Studying Individual Differences
5. Information Service
6. Counseling Service
7. Placement Service
8. Follow-Up Program
9. Guidance-Curriculum Relationships
10. Guidance-Community Relationships

One of the check lists is reprinted here (Form 15-1) to illustrate the nature of the instrument. It should be noted that a three-point rating scale is employed. Undoubtedly a technique such as this one can effectively be utilized by teachers, counselors, and administration as well as by consultants. Results of appraisals could conceivably provide enough data for a series of meetings on in-service training.

¹⁰ D. E. Kitch and W. H. McCreary, *Improving Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools* (Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XIX, No. 8, December 1950).

FORM 15-1

CHECK LIST FOR APPRAISING PROCEDURES FOR
STUDYING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCESCHECK LIST FOR APPRAISING PROCEDURES FOR STUDYING
INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Consider each item carefully. Then check it in the appropriate column: (1) Our program is strong in this respect. (2) Our program is fair in this respect but needs improvement. (3) Our program is very weak in this respect.

ASPECT OF THE PROGRAM	STRONG (1)	FAIR (2)	WEAK (3)
1. Does the school have a planned program for securing and filing data on the individual characteristics of all students?			
2. Is the information secured sufficiently complete to provide teachers, counselors, and administrators with the data they need about individual students?			
3. Are student questionnaires and other forms used to collect information for the cumulative records?			
4. Are clerks used to relieve teachers and counselors of a major share of the clerical work involved in maintaining the cumulative records?			
5. Are the records kept where they are easily accessible to counselors and teachers when they need them?			
6. Is the information accumulated about individual students regularly interpreted to the students themselves through individual counseling?			
7. Is the information accumulated about students regularly used by teachers in adjusting their classroom activities to the needs and characteristics of individual students?			
8. Is the information accumulated about students regularly used in connection with the school's program for evaluating and improving its curriculum?			
9. Do members of the school staff understand the proper use of tests and exercise proper caution in making use of test results?			
10. Does the school's program for securing information about students place undue stress on the use of tests and neglect such methods of collecting information as observation, student questionnaires, the recording of data secured through interviews with students and parents, etc?			
11. Is the ability of staff members to evaluate, interpret, and use information about students systematically improved through regular in-service training activities?			

Check lists, however, are limited in use since they are recommended only for secondary schools. In addition, they are subject to the rater's judgment to a degree which often reduces their reliability. This handicap is somewhat overcome by the general usefulness of the check list.

Interpretation of Data. As more research is developed and measuring instruments perfected, national, state, and local norms should eventually be established which can be used as a standard for evaluation of guidance data. Such standards will, of course, include the needs and values of all the local communities and schools as well as those on the state and national level. There needs to be a central point for the dispensing of necessary information so that school districts can adequately standardize their programs. The best possible source of such information according to many writers appears to be the bureau of guidance at the state level.

One example of an evaluation report is given below. It was prepared by Benjamin Kremen as one of several evaluative studies for the Fresno County, California, Schools.

THE CASE OF "N" HIGH SCHOOL

EVALUATION OF GUIDANCE SERVICES "N" HIGH SCHOOL¹¹

Administrative Bases for Guidance Services. The administrator is fairly well-informed on guidance services and has delegated appropriate duties in the guidance program to teachers who participate actively in the program. He should, however, continue to take a very active part in the program himself and to use his leadership in enlisting the support of the faculty and students in its continued development. Without the continued active support of the administrator, optimum progress cannot be made.

Provision is made for the counselor to perform his guidance duties during the scheduled school day and the physical needs of the program are adequately met. The counselor's office is an extremely attractive and pleasant place, well supplied with desks, chairs, files, and necessary materials.

The time devoted to counseling is inadequate. Three periods per day for 627 students equals a ratio of one period per 209 students. The recommended ratio is one period per 50 to 100 students.

The counselor serves in an administrative as well as a counseling capacity. Ordinarily, this is undesirable. In this case, it appears to work out fairly satisfactorily since, when serving as an administrator, the counselor is not

¹¹ Benjamin G. Kremen, *An Evaluation of Guidance Services in the High Schools of Fresno County* (Fresno County Schools, Fresno, California, 1951), 190 pp.

required to take any responsibility for disciplinary cases as such. When additional time can be devoted to counseling, however, it would be desirable to separate administration and counseling completely.

The administrator has provided for a fairly comprehensive program of records but has not assigned clerical service to aid in their upkeep. Such service, even to a limited extent, would improve upon the present record system.

The greatest weakness in the present program is the lack of attention given to the in-service training of teachers and their inclusion in the development of the program. More attention might profitably be devoted to training of the entire staff through available resources. This training would be aimed at a better appreciation of the philosophy of guidance, of the staff relationships in a guidance program, and of the contribution the guidance services can make in helping the teacher to do a better job of teaching. Visual materials, speakers, consultants, and faculty discussions could each make a contribution in this direction.

Individual Inventory Service. Data about individuals are gathered from a variety of sources including personal data blanks, individual interviews with students and members of his family, autobiographies, scattergrams, records from sending schools, test results, and physical examination reports. The types of information gathered approach adequacy.

Most of the data, however, appears to have been gathered in the elementary school and little significant information has been added in the high school. It is suggested that thought be given to the formulation of procedures for getting the needed information during the high school years, for keeping it up-to-date, and for recording it. A cumulative record has little value unless it is used to discern patterns of growth and development which in turn serve as means of identification of those areas of adjustment in which students need help.

Some thought should be given also to the possibilities for greater centralization of records. For example, while each student is given an annual physical examination, there is no information on health in the individual inventory. Similarly, while very accurate scholastic records and attendance records are kept in the school, there is nothing in the individual inventory in these areas.

Teachers appear to use the records which are provided with some regularity. More adequate, up-to-date records and training in their use and interpretation would further encourage such use.

Testing Program. The testing program is fairly adequate and the test results are used to good purpose in counseling and to some extent in the improvement of instruction.

Both purposes could be better served if the tests were administered near the beginning of the year, if the test results were duplicated according to class lists and distributed to each teacher concerned with the student, and if teachers were given help individually and in groups in the use and interpretation of test results.

Informational Service. Informational services to individuals and to groups approach adequacy. It would be helpful to students who are interested in recreational reading of books which contain occupational information if such books were put on an "occupational bookshelf" in the library.

Secondly, routine procedures for the procurement of new occupational information materials would further insure the development of the file and insure that current information is maintained.

Counseling Service. The inadequacy of time devoted to counseling makes it necessary to handle only cases in which social or emotional problems are already so obvious as to be readily noted by the teacher, counselor, or administrator, and cases of educational failure. Many pupils spend four years in the high school and never receive the benefit of an individual interview.

Secondly, the lack of time devoted to guidance services makes it difficult for the counselor to make the types of study needed for further development of the program and for the orientation of the faculty to guidance principles and techniques.

The physical provisions for counseling are very adequate.

Follow-up Service. Provisions for follow-up service are totally inadequate. It is suggested that the possibility of providing for a periodic follow-up study through the cooperation of the social studies or other suitable class group be explored.

Orientation. An excellent program for the orientation of new students is in effect.

Articulation between Schools. No effort is being made at present to provide for a cooperative study of the offerings of sending and receiving schools with an eye to smoothing the transition for students from one school to another and for developing in the staffs an appreciation of one another's problems.

Schools are increasingly, however, sending cumulative records of students to the receiving schools. Emphasis in this area of cooperation should continue to be stressed.

Influences of Guidance Services. There is definite evidence that the program of guidance services has affected the school and its curriculum in a variety of ways. For example, the identification of fairly large numbers of poor readers has led to the establishment of a remedial program. A remedial program has also been established for students who are weak in arithmetic. Teachers have modified methods of instruction and have adapted them to student characteristics as revealed by the guidance services.

There is also evidence of such desirable results as increased retention, better long-term planning by students, and a decreasing proportion of scholastic failures.

It is suggested that studies be carried on in some of the areas suggested in the evaluation checklist in order to provide positive proof of the benefits of guidance. Only through such facts is it usually possible to provide for the enlargement of the program.

Improvement of the Guidance Program

As guidance is a "personal-service function," proposed improvements of the program begins with the people who are providing the services. In the first chapter educational personnel were listed under

three general headings: administrative leaders, teachers, and pupil personnel workers. All of these people are jointly responsible for the success of the guidance effort. In addition, the guidance program depends upon the entire community as specifically represented by the board of education and parents of the students. The remainder of the chapter will discuss in-service and counselor training as means of improving guidance services.

Administrative Leadership. The responsibility for evaluation and improvement of the guidance program depends chiefly upon the administrative leadership of the particular district and school involved. The superintendent and principal, by authorization of the board of education, supply the "four M's" of the organizational function: money, materials (facilities and equipment), men (guidance workers), and management (leadership). While teachers and counselors or combinations thereof may strive vigorously to implement the guidance program, it is the administration which in the final count, holds the key to success or failure of the school program. The administrative group, in turn, is dependent upon the community through the board of education for allocations of money and provision of materials. As an enlightened public is dependent upon the school the number of those involved in the guidance program is apparent.

In-Service Training

In-service as differentiated from pre-service training is that training which is designed for persons already on the job. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the administrative leaders of the school and district.

The Need for In-Service Training. The quality of the service is determined by the competence of those who provide such service in the first place. In the case of guidance it has been found that many pupil personnel workers have had only introductory guidance courses or no formal training at all in guidance practices. Quite often, in fact, teachers have been assigned to teacher-counselor or counselor positions without even the minimum necessary for such important functions.

If the teacher as the key figure in the educational program is to contribute his proper share to the improvement of the guidance function, he will need insight into the whole problem of guidance. In-service training, when effectively conducted, can go far towards pro-

viding such insight on the part of the teacher. The progress of a teacher in service, so to speak, is measured by his professional growth. In-service training, in turn, is measured by the degree to which it contributes to this personal growth.

Through in-service training, it is hoped that the teacher will come to realize the full significance of his part in the guidance scheme. Such programs help the teacher grow in understanding and professional competence. For example, working in business or industry part-time or during summers is a training procedure which helps prepare the teacher through practical job experience for more realistic classroom instruction. In addition, such work experience can help improve the vocational-guidance program in which the teacher takes part.

Among the more prominent in-service training procedures are college courses of study, summer school courses, graduate courses, field trips and laboratory work, extension and correspondence courses, class discussions, staff conferences, faculty meetings, professional organizations, and the like.

Continuous training, however, must be provided not for the teacher alone but for all guidance personnel. The dynamic nature of child development and changes in our social structure require a flexible outlook and mature approach on the part of those concerned with rearing the young today. In-service training, however, is not to be construed as a substitute for the counselor and teacher preparation programs. It is, rather, a necessary supplement to these regular training programs.

Readiness for In-Service Training. Past experiences have demonstrated that teachers and counselors often resent what they consider the added burden of in-service training. An announcement by the principal that this is a year in which the faculty will work on guidance problems seldom is welcomed with signs of joy. Because of this situation preliminary steps need to be taken to insure at least a degree of readiness for in-service training. Obviously such readiness is not possible until the faculty and staff are willing to believe that the school is indeed responsible (with the parents and the community) for the education of each child.

Such a belief, in turn, is dependent upon knowledge of and identification with the functions and goals of the guidance program. In this respect, if the guidance committee has been functioning at all properly, the problems will be greatly reduced. The following suggestions for helping to create a feeling of readiness for the in-service training program are offered:

1. Have each teacher make up a short case study of a child who needs help.
2. Have the teachers and counselors prepare lists of problems which face the pupils.
3. Have a discussion by a worker in some human-relations field discuss available community resources.
4. Have the administrators show they believe in the guidance program.
5. Give teachers and counselors the feeling that they are free to discuss any pupil problems.
6. Have teachers, counselors, and administrators cooperate in the development of the program.

Basic Methods and Subjects of In-Service Training. Forms and methods for providing in-service training should be varied and adapted to the needs of the participants. Starting with a carefully planned program, the methods may include one or more of the following: inspirational speakers, faculty and group meetings, spontaneous groups of teachers with specific problems, use of professional libraries, bulletins, workshops, extension courses from the colleges, demonstrations, non-academic work experiences, follow-up studies, surveying community agencies, group guidance experiences, parent contributions, and outside consultants.

CASE OF MAYWOOD SCHOOL

The school guidance committee decided that an in-service education program would be helpful for their eight grade-counselors. Two preliminary meetings were held and the following program was established. The head counselor was to be instructor with assistance from the district consultant. The actual school files were to be employed as the source of stimulating data with the methodology emphasizing practical experience. The professional library of the school contained several books. To these were added books from the central office and community library, and personally owned books of the head counselor. All were made available to the participants.

The eight sessions were organized as follows:

Session I—General Organization

Philosophy of the Grade Counselors

1. What guidance means to me
2. Functions of the grade counselor—
 - a. Routine of the guidance offices
 - b. Services to pupils
 - c. Service to teachers

3. The place of routine duties in establishing rapport with pupils
Ethics of the Grade Counselor

Session II and III—School Records

Cumulative Records

What the cumulative records include

Keeping cumulative records, including filing and recording

Interpretation

1. Principles basic to interpretation
2. Uses
3. Clues indicating need of further investigation
4. Practice in interpreting elementary and junior high school cumulative-record cards
 - a. Interpretation of test data
 - b. Interpretation of other information

Health Card

Attendance Card

Session IV—Testing Program

Purposes

Kinds of Tests Used

Administration of Tests

Types of Testing Programs

Evaluation

Supplementary

Session V—Pupil Program

Information Basic to Planning Master Program

Factors to Consider in Programming an Individual

Test results (reliability of tests)

Personality and adjustment factors

Graduation Requirements

City-wide

School

Selection of Pupils for Special Courses

Steps Involved in Programming an Entire Grade

Programming New Pupils

Program Changes

Promotional Policies of the City Schools

Acceleration

Retention

Special promotion

Session VI—Conferences and Interviews

Pupil Interviews

Purposes

Reasons

Course of the interview

1. Preparation
2. Conducting the interview
3. Recording
4. Follow-up

Suggestions for improving
Limitations

Parent Interviews

Teacher Interviews

Session VII—Resources within the School for Helping the Pupil

The Scope of the Grade Counselor's Responsibility

1. Counseling with pupils
2. Program adjustments
3. Teacher conferences
 - a. Individual conference for interpretation of accumulated information about pupil.
 - b. Group conferences in which grade-counselor chairmen discuss pupil needs and make recommendations for meeting these needs.
 - c. Follow-up on recommendations resulting from teacher conferences
4. Group guidance
 - a. Home-rooms
 - b. Guidance units within regular classes
 - c. Clubs and extracurricular groups
 - d. Grade group activities

Referral Resources

Home-room teachers
Classroom teacher
Head counselor
Registrar

Health coordinator
Child welfare and attendance supervisor (through the attendance office)
Vice-principal

Session VIII—Qualifications for Counseling

Training for Counseling

University courses
In-service workshops
Reading
Organizations
Self-evaluation
Summary

Evaluating an In-Service Program. Criteria for evaluation of the in-service training program should, of course, emerge from the objectives already established. The methodology, too, should be applicable and as free as possible of burdening activities. Following are some ques-

tions which need to be answered in the evaluation of the in-service program:

1. Does the program spring from the local needs and problems?
2. Do the procedures stimulate maximum individual thinking and participation?
3. Is interest in the program sustained so as to maintain a constant level of participation by members?
4. Are adequate records maintained?
5. Are teacher-pupil and counselor-pupil relations improved?
6. Has the scholastic achievement of the pupils improved?
7. Is there improved community-school relations?
8. Is student morale improved?
9. Are the students demonstrating wiser choices as to educational and vocational planning?
10. Are all of the teachers, counselors, administrators, and community agencies working cooperatively together?

It is evident that many of the same criteria which apply in the evaluation of the total guidance program apply here also.

Counselor Preparation

Perhaps the most effective means for the improvement of the guidance service is to select counselors who have demonstrated superior competencies. In recent years there has been a great deal of effort expended in drawing up professional standards for counselors. In a bulletin issued (1957) by U.S. Office of Education,¹² it was reported that forty-one states had certification requirements for guidance workers. Thirty-four of these were mandatory and seven were optional. Nine of the states had adopted credentials during that year; and the remaining states were expected to adopt credentials within the next year or so. In addition to reporting the requirements for each of the states, the bulletin also summarized the credential requirements for the school psychologist—now in force by twelve states. The national picture, then, does indicate that guidance workers must meet definite professional standards. Only one-third of the present counselors, it is estimated by the U.S. Office of Education, meet state standards.

¹² R. E. Brewster, *Guidance Workers Certification Requirements* (Washington: U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1957, No. 22).

A review of current requirements in the several states reveals the following common elements:

1. Two or more years of teaching experience.
2. A master's degree, or equivalent, in guidance training.
3. Experience in an occupation other than teaching—required by approximately half of the states.
4. Supervised internships or practicums as a part of the training—required by many states.
5. A multi-disciplinary approach to training, i.e., usually courses in education, psychology, and social welfare are required. The core areas of training generally included: (a) philosophy and principles of guidance, (b) growth and development of the individual, (c) methods of studying the individual, (d) use of educational, occupational, and personal information, (e) administration and community relationships, (f) counseling and group techniques, and (g) research and evaluation.

Minnesota's Requirements for Counselor's Certificate. Illustrative of the training and experience required by the various state programs is that of Minnesota:

- I. The initial counselor's certificate valid in the public schools of Minnesota may be issued to teachers otherwise qualified, who fulfill the following requirements as to training and experience:
 - A. A valid certificate to teach in the public schools of Minnesota, based upon a bachelor's degree from an accredited teacher preparing institution.
 - B. A master's degree, or its equivalent (45 quarter credit hours of graduate work taken beyond the bachelor's degree) from institutions approved by the State Department of Education to give graduate courses in the areas listed below. At least one course acceptable for graduate work will be required in each area, not more than 6 credits of which may have been taken as undergraduate.
 1. Principles and practices in guidance.
 2. Personality structure and mental hygiene.
 3. Measurement and research methods.
 4. Appraisal techniques.
 5. Occupational and training information and materials.
 6. Counseling procedures.
 7. Practice in guidance and counseling.*
 8. Group procedures in guidance.
 - C. Have demonstrated successful teaching experience (2 or more years preferred).
 - D. Minimum of 1 year cumulated work experience outside of education (2 or more years experience in several occupational areas preferred).
 - E. A recommendation from an administrator of a school in which the applicant for counselor's certificate was last employed and from the counselor training institution.

II. Renewal requirements: The original certificate will be renewed every 5 years upon completion of satisfactory professional growth as evidenced by—

A. Six quarter hour^{°°} additional college credit in professional education and 3 months of appropriate work or counseling experience outside of education. (This requirement will be waived after the second renewal.)

B. Recommendation from an administrator of the employing school.

[°] One year of half time or more successful counseling experience may be substituted.

^{°°} Other types of approved activities may be substituted for a portion as for example: Professional participation in a scheduled workshop or institute of 1 or more week's duration.¹³

Personal Qualifications. Even though there are now established certification requirements, it is impossible to legislate attitudes and personal characteristics into teachers and others who wish to be recognized as qualified counselors. Several organizations and individuals have completed studies and made recommendations. One of the finest reports was prepared by a committee in cooperation with the U.S. Office of Education from preliminary work by professional organizations. This particular committee emphasized the following personal qualifications: (a) scholastic aptitude sufficient for post-graduate work, (b) interest in working with people, (c) ability to work with people of varied backgrounds, and (d) personality factors indicating personal and social maturity, including sensitivity to others, "tact, poise, a sense of humor, a freedom from withdrawing tendencies, the ability to profit from mistakes, and the ability to take criticism. . . . (pleasing) personal appearance . . . good health, pleasing voice, magnetism, and freedom from annoying mannerisms."¹⁴

The responsibility for selecting candidates for educational programs rests with the different institutions offering such programs. Local school boards are equally responsible for the calibre of personnel hired for the various school functions. Both training institutions and school boards are thus responsible for the development of criteria which will accurately screen applicants. Thus far there have been few attempts on a wide scale to standardize such criteria. Because of the emphasis upon local control of education criteria will have to be extremely wide in scope. This is an area in which there is need for a concerted program of research.

¹³ *Ibid*, pp. 15-16.

¹⁴ Committee on Duties, Standards, and Qualifications, *Duties, Standards and Qualifications of Counselors: One of a Series of Reports on Counselor Preparation* (U.S. Office of Education, Misc. 3314-1, 1949).

Competencies of Pupil Personnel Workers. The following statement, adapted partially from a statement of competencies prepared by counselor trainers at the Pennsylvania State University, is an attempt by the writers of this text to summarize the competencies needed by guidance workers.

Pre-requisite to specialized training in pupil personnel work, the competent worker:

1. Has demonstrated ability to work effectively in activities involving human relationships.

2. Is sensitive to and capable of understanding and interpreting the major forces that affect an individual in his culture.

From training and further experience the competent worker:

3. Knows and wisely provides for the limitations and contributions of his own personality in given patterns of human relationships.

4. Has developed a workable philosophy of pupil personnel work as applied in the American educational program.

5. Appreciates and understands the individual and his patterns of behavior, learning, and adjustment.

6. Understands and uses accepted principles, instruments, and techniques employed in the identification, measurement, evaluation and reporting of significant data regarding human characteristics.

7. Knows and wisely uses all types of educational, community, and occupational information; also referral services, agencies, and activities which may contribute to the life adjustment of each individual.

8. Employs effective procedures in counseling, guiding, and instructing people who may use special help in solving their problems.

9. Is qualified to organize, administer, and evaluate a pupil personnel program.

10. Gives enthusiastic and effective leadership in the promotion of "the pupil personnel point of view" in all school relationships, and in the development of increased competence in the field.

There are many lists and descriptive statements of counselor qualifications which may be found in the literature. There is need for continuous research to provide objective data for selection, training, and evaluation of counselors.

Professional Memberships. One of the necessary qualities of a guidance specialist is that he join and actively support the associations which are promoting the welfare of his professional field. It has been mainly through the efforts of these associations that pupil personnel

work has risen to the standards of service which exist today. Improved training programs, codes of ethics, cooperation with other professional organizations, journals, workshops are but a few of the many contributions. The task, however, is not completely accomplished. If we are to meet the challenge of the future and the needs of today cooperative and intelligent planning must occur.

Most areas support local, regional, and national organizations. Lack of a local organization excuses no qualified member from joining a national organization.

Probably the association to which most guidance workers belong is the American Personnel and Guidance Association, with headquarters at 1534 O Street, N.W., Washington 5, D.C. APGA dues for one year are \$10.00, which includes a subscription to the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* and membership in one of the following divisions:

- I. ACPA —American College Personnel Association
- II. NAGSCT—National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers
- III. NVGA —National Vocational Guidance Association (Professional membership status has special requirements.)
- IV. SPATE —Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education
- V. ASCA —American School Counselor Association
- VI. DRC —Division of Rehabilitation Counseling

Pupil personnel workers in psychology should, of course, join the American Psychological Association, and its Division (16) of School Psychology. School social workers, nurses, and physicians may in turn attain membership in their appropriate organizations.

In final conclusion, much of the success and satisfaction in the field of human relationships will be dependent upon the contributions of the professional societies or associations.

Summary

Evaluation is, in an important sense, guidance-in-action. It represents the assurance that objectives set up beforehand are receiving due consideration. Evaluation employs the techniques of guidance but only as these techniques contribute to the major purposes of the guidance program.

Evaluation depends upon democratic planning and participation at all levels. It involves not only honest enthusiasm upon the part of educational personnel but intelligent leadership as well. The process

of evaluation is: (1) establishment of objectives, (2) determination of criteria for measurement, (3) measurement of expected changes, (4) evaluation of findings, and (5) application of any revised policies.

The effectiveness, or rather the success, of the evaluation program in the final analysis is determined by the degree to which each individual is assisted in developing to the fullest of his abilities and potentialities as a desirable member of the community. Because guidance is an on-going process it will require periodic evaluation.

Improvement of guidance services requires, in addition to evaluation, continuous in-service training of teachers, counselors, and supervisors. Some suggested principles governing in-service training are as follows: (1) the administration must provide skillful leadership and sincere enthusiasm for the guidance program; (2) there must be democratic planning and participation at all levels; (3) the entire staff should have a small core of generalized experiences plus specialized experiences adapted to the needs of each member; (4) the program should be a continuous one with variety and motivation to keep it alive; (5) there should be periodic evaluation.

Probably the most important way for improving guidance services is through employment of competent counselors. Training programs are now offered by many colleges and universities across the nation to provide for education of pupil personnel workers. These training programs are geared to meet the standards recommended by professional organizations and the credential requirements for guidance now required by nearly all of the states.

Suggested Problems

1. Your school is about to begin a period of in-service training in guidance for teachers. You have been asked to present a case study. How would you determine which pupil to use for the study? What information do you need to help you prepare the study?

2. Make up a check list for evaluating the orientation program of a school.

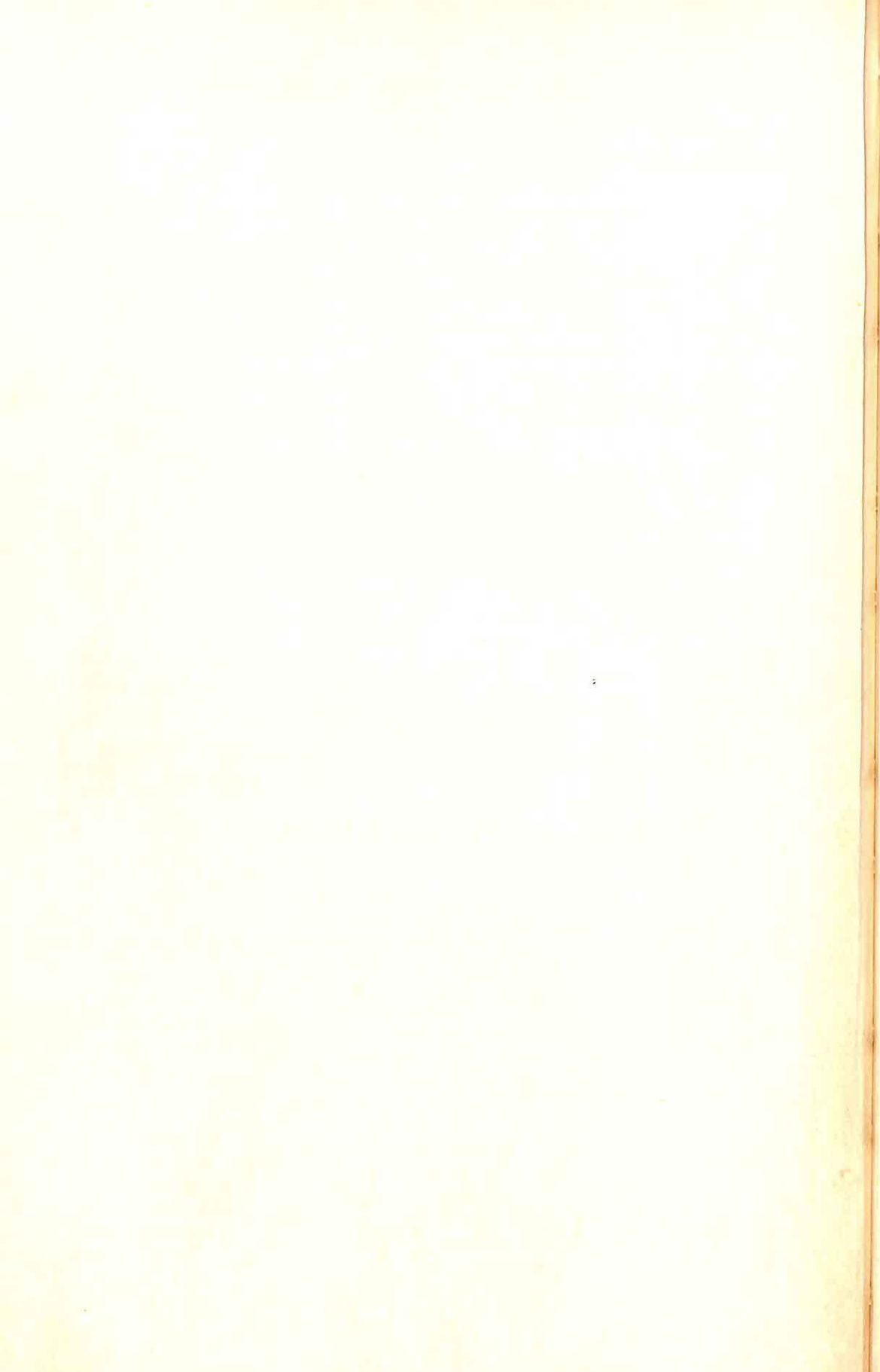
3. What steps would you take in evaluating the counseling service of your school?

4. What guidance courses (if any) are required for teachers in your state? What is required for other school personnel (principal, counselors, school nurse, etc.)?

5. What are the personal qualities of a good counselor? How may the selection of qualified counselors be insured?

Suggested Readings

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- McCreary, W. H., and Donald Kitch, *Now Hear Youth*. A report on the California Co-operative Study of School Drop-outs and Graduates, Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXII, No. 9, October, 1953.
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- Wandt, E., and G. W. Brown, *Essentials of Educational Evaluation*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1957.
- Wilson, Frances M., *Procedures in Evaluating a Guidance Program*. New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946.
- See also the references cited in the footnotes.



Appendix A

Methods of Expressing Test Scores

The following bulletin, reprinted by permission of the Psychological Corporation, offers help for interpreting test scores. The texts listed in the Suggested Readings in Chapter 7 explain how the scores may be computed.

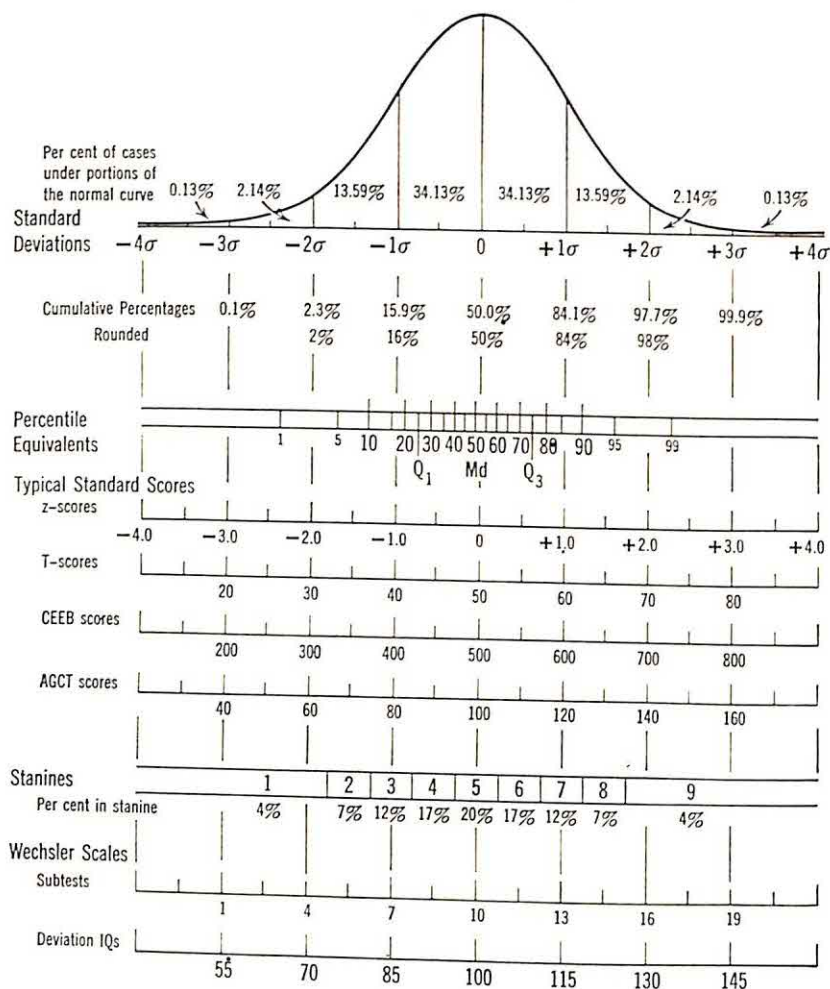
Methods of Expressing Test Scores

An individual's test score acquires meaning when it can be compared with the scores of well-identified groups of people. Manuals for tests provide tables of norms to make it easy to compare individuals and groups. Several systems for deriving more meaningful "standard scores" from raw scores have been widely adopted. All of them reveal the relative status of individuals within a group.

The fundamental equivalence of the most popular standard score systems is illustrated in the chart on the next page. We hope the chart and the accompanying description will be useful to counselors, personnel officers, clinical diagnosticians and others in helping them to show the uninitiated the essential simplicity of standard score systems, percentile equivalents, and their relation to the ideal normal distribution.

Sooner or later, every textbook discussion of test scores introduces the bell-shaped normal curve. The student of testing soon learns that many of the methods of deriving meaningful scores

are anchored to the dimensions and characteristics of this curve. And he learns by observation of actual test score distributions that the ideal mathematical curve is a reasonably good



approximation of many practical cases. He learns to use the standardized properties of the ideal curve as a model.

Let us look first at the curve itself. Notice that there are no raw scores printed along the baseline. The graph is generalized; it describes an idealized distribution of scores of any group on any test. We are free to use any numerical scale we like. For any particular set of scores, we can be arbitrary and call the average score zero. In technical terms we "equate" the mean raw score to zero. Similarly we

can choose any convenient number, say 1.00, to represent the scale distance of one standard deviation.¹ Thus, if a distribution of scores on a particular test has a mean of 36 and a standard deviation of 4, the zero point on the baseline of our curve would be equivalent to an original score of 36; one unit to the right, $+1\sigma$, would be equivalent to 40, $(36 + 4)$; and one

¹ The mathematical symbol for the standard deviation is the lower case Greek letter sigma or σ . These terms are used interchangeably in this article.

unit to the left, -1σ , would be equivalent to 32, $(36 - 4)$.

The total area under the curve represents the total number of scores in the distribution. Vertical lines have been drawn through the score scale (the baseline) at zero and at 1, 2, 3, and 4 sigma units to the right and left. These lines mark off subareas of the total area under the curve. The numbers printed in these subareas are per cents—percentages of the total number of people. Thus, 34.13 per cent of all cases in a normal distribution have scores falling between 0 and -1σ . For practical purposes we rarely need to deal with standard deviation units below -3 or above $+3$; the percentage of cases with scores beyond $\pm 3\sigma$ is negligible.

The fact that 68.26 per cent fall between $\pm 1\sigma$ gives rise to the common statement that in a normal distribution roughly two-thirds of all cases lie between plus and minus one sigma. This is a rule of thumb every test user should keep in mind. It is very near to the theoretical value and is a useful approximation.

Below the row of deviations expressed in sigma units is a row of per cents; these show *cumulatively* the percentage of people which is included *to the left* of each of the sigma points. Thus, starting from the left, when we reach the line erected above -2σ , we have included the lowest 2.3 per cent of cases. These percentages have been rounded in the next row.

Note some other relationships: the area between the $\pm 1\sigma$ points includes the scores which lie above the 16th percentile (-1σ) and below the 84th percentile ($+1\sigma$)—two major reference points all test users should know. When we find that an individual has a score 1σ above the mean, we conclude that his score ranks at the 84th percentile in the group of persons on whom the test was normed.

(This conclusion is good provided we also add this clause, at least subvocally: *if this particular group reasonably approximates the ideal normal model.*)

The simplest facts to memorize about the normal distribution and the relation of the *percentile* system to deviations from the average in sigma units are seen in the chart. They are

Deviation					
from the					
mean	-2σ	-1σ	0	$+1\sigma$	$+2\sigma$
Percentile					
equivalent	2	16	50	84	98

To avoid cluttering the graph reference lines have not been drawn, but we could mark off ten per cent sections of area under the normal curve by drawing lines vertically from the indicated decile points (10, 20, . . . 80, 90) up through the graph. The reader might do this lightly with a colored pencil.

We can readily see that ten per cent of the area (people) at the middle of the distribution embraces a smaller *distance* on the baseline of the curve than ten per cent of the area (people) at the ends of the range of scores, for the simple reason that the curve is much higher at the middle. A person who is at the 95th percentile is farther away from a person at the 85th percentile in units of *test score* than a person at the 55th percentile is from one at the 45th percentile.

The remainder of the chart, that is the several scoring scales drawn parallel to the baseline, illustrates variations of the *deviation score* principle. As a class these are called *standard scores*.

First, there are the *z-scores*. These are the same *numbers* as shown on the baseline of the graph; the only difference is that the expression, σ , has been omitted. These scores run, in prac-

tical terms, from -3.0 to $+3.0$. One can compute them to more decimal places if one wishes, although computing to a single decimal place is usually sufficient. One can compute z-scores by equating the mean to 0.00 and the standard deviation to 1.00 for a distribution of any shape, but the relationships shown in this figure between the z-score equivalents of raw scores and percentile equivalents of raw scores are correct only for normal distributions. The interpretation of standard score systems derives from the idea of using the normal curve as a model.

As can be seen, T-scores are directly related to z-scores. The mean of the raw scores is equated to 50 , and the standard deviation of the raw scores is equated to 10 . Thus a z-score of $+1.5$ means the same as a T-score of 65 . T-scores are usually expressed in whole numbers from about 20 to 80 . The T-score plan eliminates negative numbers and thus facilitates many computations.²

The College Entrance Examination Board uses a plan in which both decimals and negative numbers are avoided by setting the arbitrary mean at 500 points and the arbitrary sigma at another convenient unit, namely, 100 points. The experienced tester or counselor who hears of a College Board SAT-V score of 550 at once thinks, "Half a sigma (50 points) above average (500 points) on the CEEB basic norms." And when he hears of a score of 725 on SAT-N, he can interpret, "Plus $2\frac{1}{4}\sigma$. Therefore, better than the 98th percentile."

During World War II the Navy used the T-score plan of reporting test status.

² T-scores and percentiles both have 50 as the main reference point, an occasional source of confusion to those who do not insist on careful labelling of data and of scores of individuals in their records.

The Army used still another system with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 20 points.

Another derivative of the general standard score system is the *stanine* plan, developed by psychologists in the Air Force during the war. The plan divides the norm population into nine groups, hence, "standard nines." Except for stanine 9, the top, and stanine 1, the bottom, these groups are spaced in half-sigma units. Thus, stanine 5 is defined as including the people who are within $\pm 0.25\sigma$ of the mean. Stanine 6 is the group defined by the half-sigma distance on the baseline between $+0.25\sigma$ and $+0.75\sigma$. Stanines 1 and 9 include all persons who are below -1.75σ and above $+1.75\sigma$, respectively. The result is a distribution in which the mean is 5.0 and the standard deviation is 2.0 .

Just below the line showing the demarcation of the nine groups in the stanine system there is a row of percentages which indicates the per cent of the total population in each of the stanines. Thus 7 per cent of the population will be in stanine 2, and 20 per cent in the middle group, stanine 5.

Interpretation of the Wechsler scales (W-B I, W-B II, WISC, and WAIS) depends on a knowledge of standard scores. A subject's raw score on each of the subtests in these scales is converted, by appropriate norms tables, to a standard score, based on a mean of 10 and a standard deviation of 3 . The sums of standard scores on the Verbal Scale, the Performance Scale, and the Full Scale are then converted into IQs. These IQs are based on a standard score mean of 100 , the conventional number for representing the IQ of the average person in a given age group. The standard deviation of the IQs is set at 15 points. In practical terms, then, roughly two-thirds of the IQs are between 85 and 115 , that

is, $\pm 1\sigma$.³ IQs of the type used in the Wechsler scales have come to be known as *deviation IQs*, as contrasted with the IQs developed from scales in which a derived mental age is divided by chronological age.

Users of the Wechsler scales should establish clearly in their minds the relationship of subtest scaled scores

³ Every once in a while we receive a letter from someone who suggests that the Wechsler scales ought to generate a wider range of IQs. The reply is very simple. If we want a wider range of IQs all we have to do is to choose a *larger arbitrary* standard deviation, say, 20 or 25. Under the present system, $\pm 3\sigma$ gives IQs of 55 to 145, with a few rare cases below and a few rare cases above. If we used 20 as the standard deviation, we would *arbitrarily* increase the $\pm 3\sigma$ range of IQs from 55-145 to 40-160. This *is* a wider range of numbers! But, test users should never forget that adaptations of this kind do not change the responses of the people who took the test, do not change the order of the persons in relation to each other, and do not change the psychological meaning attached to an IQ.

and the deviation IQs to the other standard score systems, to the ordinary percentile rank interpretation, and to the deviation units on the baseline of the normal curve. For example, every Wechsler examiner should recognize that an IQ of 130 is a score equivalent to a deviation of $+2\sigma$, and that this IQ score delimits approximately the upper two per cent of the population. If a clinician wants to evaluate a Wechsler IQ of 85 along with percentile ranks on several other tests given in school, he can mentally convert the IQ of 85 to a percentile rank of about 16, this being the percentile equal to a deviation from the mean of -1σ . Of course he should also consider the appropriateness and comparability of norms.

Efficiency in interpreting test scores in counseling, in clinical diagnosis, and in personnel selection depends, in part, on facility in thinking in terms of the major interrelated plans by which meaningful scores are derived from raw scores. It is hoped that this graphic presentation will be helpful to all who in their daily work must help others understand the information conveyed by numerical test scores.—H. G. S.

Appendix B

Suggested Films

The following films have been widely and effectively used by instructors of guidance and related courses. There are and will be many more excellent films produced. A list of sources of information about films is given in Chapter 13.

As the descriptions are necessarily brief, previewing of films before showing by instructors is suggested.

- Activity Group Therapy.* (50 min.) Columbia University Press, 1950. Presents treatment of emotionally disturbed boys, ages ten and eleven. Should only be shown to advanced classes.
- Angry Boy.* (33 min.) International Film Bureau, 1951. Relates the behavior of a boy who steals the teacher's money to the family setting. Shows methods of treatment in a child-guidance clinic.
- Assignment Tomorrow.* (20 min.) National Education Association. Shows how teachers work together for the benefit of the children.
- Baby Meets His Parents.* (10 min.) Encyclopedia Britannica Films. Illustrates individual differences and infant needs.
- Children's Emotions.* (22 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1950 (Crawley Films). Presents some of the major emotions of childhood.
- A Class for Tommy.* (20 min.) Los Angeles City Schools, 1950. Story of establishment of an experimental class for mentally retarded children.
- Client-Centered Therapy,* two parts. (30 min. each) Pennsylvania State University. Presents Carl Rogers counseling with a graduate student and a middle-aged mother.

- Counseling—Its Tools and Techniques.* (22 min.) Carl F. Mehnke. Illustrates counseling procedures used with a high school boy.
- Curriculum Based on Child Development.* (12 min.) McGraw-Hill. Shows how a fourth-grade teacher adapted the curriculum to the needs of her pupils.
- Design of American Public Education.* (16 min.) McGraw-Hill. Indicates aims and practices of our democratic school system.
- Developmental Characteristics of Preadolescents.* (18 min.) McGraw-Hill. A study of two nine year olds.
- Elementary School Children, Part 1. Each Child Is Different.* (17 min.) McGraw-Hill. Portrays the lives of five children in a fifth-grade class on the first day of a new school year.
- Elementary School Children, Part 2. Discovering Individual Differences.* (25 min.) McGraw-Hill. Shows how a fifth-grade teacher studies her pupils by observation, cumulative records, behavior journal, discussion with teachers, interviews with parents, and staff conferences.
- Emotional Health.* (20 min.) McGraw-Hill. Shows a college student who is referred to a psychiatrist for help.
- Eye of the Beholder.* (14 min.) Illustrates that people interpret behavior of others in terms of their own points of view.
- Families First.* (18 min.) New York State Department of Commerce. Contrasts patterns of family life, causes of tension, frustrations, and attitudes.
- Family Circles.* (31 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1949 (National Film Board, Canada). Shows how attitudes of parents influence attitudes of children.
- Farewell to Childhood.* (23 min.) Mental Health Materials Center. How a school counselor helped a teen-age girl to work out better relations with her parents.
- Fears of Children.* (29 min.) Mental Health Materials Center. Parent-child situation where mother coddles and father uses sterner discipline.
- Feelings of Depression.* (30 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1950 (Mental Mechanisms Series, Produced by National Film Board, Canada). Case history of a young businessman who requires psychiatric assistance.
- Feelings of Hostility.* (27 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1948 (Mental Mechanisms Series, Produced by National Film Board, Canada). The case history of Clare, an outwardly successful young woman but one whose childhood was filled with hostility.
- Feelings of Rejection.* (23 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1947 (Mental Mechanisms Series, Produced by National Film Board, Canada). Case study of a young woman suffering from physical symptoms who is referred to a psychiatrist.
- Finger Painting.* (22 min.) New York University. Use of finger painting for self-expression.
- First Lessons.* (22 min.) Mental Health Film Board. An emotionally disturbed child enters a second-grade class.
- The Frustrating Four and Fascinating Fives.* (22 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1952 (Ages and Stages Series, Produced by Crawley Films for National Film Board of Canada).
- Good Speech for Gary.* (20 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1953. Shows what schools might do in understanding and helping children with speech difficulties.
- Hard Brought Up.* (40 min.) Mental Health Materials Center. How two boys are helped by a child-welfare worker.

- He Acts His Age.* (15 min.) McGraw-Hill. Examines the play habits of children from one to fifteen years of age.
- Helping Teachers to Understand Children, Parts 1 and 2.* (25 min. each part) United World Films. Portrays work of Child Study Institute of University of Maryland. Teacher's study on pre-adolescent.
- The High Wall.* (32 min.) McGraw-Hill. Reveals nature of prejudice among youth and adults.
- Human Growth.* (19 min.) McGraw-Hill. Presents facts of human growth in objective style.
- Human Reproduction.* (20 min.) McGraw-Hill.
- The King and the Lion.* (12 min.) Athena Films. A human-relations film for children and adults.
- Let Me See* (color). (20 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1953. Parent and school co-operatively plan for blind child.
- Life with Baby.* (18 min.) March of Time, 1946. Describes research at the Yale University clinic by Dr. Gesell.
- Life with Junior.* (18 min.) March of Time, 1949 (with Child Study Association). The typical day in the life of a boy.
- Listening Eyes* (color). (20 min.) John Tracy Clinic, Los Angeles. Shows training for the deaf.
- Maintaining Classroom Discipline.* (14 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1947.
- The Meaning of Adolescence.* (20 min.) McGraw-Hill.
- Meeting Emotional Needs in Childhood: The Groundwork of Democracy.* (33 min.) New York University.
- Meeting the Needs of Adolescents.* (19 min.) McGraw-Hill.
- Of Pups and Puzzles.* (11 min.) Encyclopedia Britannica Films. Three young men apply for a job. Demonstrates individual differences.
- Over-Dependency.* (32 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1949 (National Film Board, Canada). Young man requires psychiatric help to overcome strong feelings of overdependency developed during childhood.
- Palmour Street.* (27 min.) Health Publications Institute. Parent-child relations in a lower socio-economic family in Georgia.
- Physical Aspects of Puberty.* (19 min.) McGraw-Hill.
- Preface to a Life.* (29 min.) United World Films, 1950 (Produced by Sun Dial Films, Inc.) Shows influence of parents on child.
- The Quiet One.* (67 min.) Athena Films. A withdrawn boy from the slums is helped to recover at a special school.
- Role Playing in Guidance: A Case History.* (14 min.) University of California at Los Angeles.
- Roots of Happiness.* (25 min.) Mental Health Materials Center. Illustrates how values and attitudes are related to personality development. Puerto Rico setting.
- Shyness.* (23 min.) McGraw-Hill, 1953 (National Film Board, Canada). Illustrates different meaning of shyness in three children.
- Sociable Sixes and Noisy Nines.* (20 min.) McGraw-Hill.
- The Terrible Twos and the Trusting Threes.* (20 min.) McGraw-Hill.
- That the Deaf May Speak* (color). (42 min.) Ideal Pictures Corporation, 58 E. South Water, Chicago, Illinois. Free film (service charge \$2.50).
- This Is Robert, Parts 1 and 2.* (40 min. each) New York University. A case study of a boy during pre-school and first grade.

- Whoever You Are.* (20 min.) New York University. How a New York neighborhood meets prejudice.
- Who's Delinquent?* (16½ min.) Radio Corporation of America.
- Why Can't Jimmy Read?* (18 min.) Syracuse University. Shows the work of a reading clinic.
- Willie and the Mouse.* (11 min.) Teaching Film Custodians, 1946 Produced by Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer—Passing Parade). Illustrates how experimental studies in learning have been applied in the classroom.
- Your Health at Home* (color). (10 min.) Stresses good health habits.

Appendix C

National Defense Education Act of 1958

Title V: Guidance, Counseling and Testing; Identification and Encouragement of Able Students*

Part A—State Programs

Appropriations Authorized

Sec. 501. There are hereby authorized to be appropriated \$15,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1959, and for each of the three succeeding fiscal years, for making grants to State educational agencies under this part to assist them to establish and maintain programs of testing and guidance and counseling.

Allotments to States

Sec. 502. From the sums appropriated pursuant to section 501 for any fiscal year the Commissioner shall reserve such amount, but not in excess of 2 per centum thereof, as he may determine for allotment as provided in section 1008.¹ From the remainder of such sums the Commissioner shall allot to each State an amount which bears the same ratio to the amount of such remainder as the school-age population of such State bears to the total of school-age populations of all of the States. The amount allotted to any State under the preceding sentence for any fiscal year which is less than \$20,000 shall be increased to \$20,000, the total of increases thereby required being derived by proportionately reducing the amount allotted to each of the remaining States under the preceding sentence, but with such adjustments as may be necessary to prevent the allotment of any such remaining States from being thereby reduced to less than \$20,000.

¹ Allotments to territories and possessions

* Digest reprinted from *California Guidance Newsletter*, September 1958.

State Plans

Sec. 503. (a) Any State which desires to receive payments under this part shall submit to the Commissioner, through its State educational agency, a State plan which meets the requirements of section 1004 (a)² and sets forth—

- (1) a program for testing students in the public secondary schools,³ and if authorized by law in other secondary schools, of such State to identify students with outstanding aptitudes and ability, and the means of testing which will be utilized in carrying out such program; and
- (2) a program of guidance and counseling in the public secondary schools of such State (A) to advise students of courses of study best suited to their ability, aptitudes, and skills, and (B) to encourage students with outstanding aptitude and ability to complete their secondary school education, take the necessary courses for admission to institutions of higher education, and enter such institutions.

(b) The Commissioner shall approve any State plan and any modification thereof which complies with the provisions of subsection (a).

Payments to States

Sec. 504. (a) Payment under this part shall be made to those State educational agencies which administer plans approved under section 503. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1959, such payments shall equal the amount expended by the State in carrying out its State plan, and for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1960, and for each of the two succeeding fiscal years, such payments shall equal one-half of the amount so expended, except that no State educational agency shall receive payment under this part for any fiscal year in excess of that State's allotment for that fiscal year as determined under section 502.

(b) In any State which has a State plan approved under section 503 and in which the State educational agency is not authorized by law to make payments to cover the cost of testing students in any one or more secondary schools in such State to determine student abilities and aptitudes, the Commissioner shall arrange for the testing of such students and shall pay the cost thereof for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1959, and one-half of the cost thereof for any of the three succeeding fiscal years out of such State's allotment. Testing of students pursuant to this subsection shall, so far as practicable, be comparable to, and be done at the same grade levels and under the same conditions as in the case of testing of students in public schools under the State plan.

Part B—Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes*Authorization*

Sec. 511. There are hereby authorized to be appropriated \$6,250,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1959, and \$7,250,000 for each of the three succeeding fiscal years, to enable the Commissioner to arrange, by contracts with institutions of higher education, for the operation by them of short-term or regular session institutes for the provision of training to improve the qualifications of personnel engaged in counseling and guidance of students in secondary schools, or teachers in such schools preparing to engage in such counseling and guidance. Each in-

² Given at the end of the text of Title V

³ Does not include education beyond grade 12

dividual, engaged, or preparing to engage in counseling and guidance in a public secondary school, who attends an institute operated under the provisions of this part shall be eligible (after application thereof) to receive a stipend at the rate of \$75 per week for the period of his attendance at such institute, and each such individual with one or more dependents shall receive an additional stipend at the rate of \$15 per week for each such dependent for the period of such attendance.

Administration of State Plans

Sec. 1004. (a) No State plan submitted under one of the titles of this Act shall be approved by the Commissioner which does not—

- (1) provide, in the case of a plan submitted under Title III⁴ or under Title V, or section 1009⁵ of this title, that the State educational agency will be the sole agency for administering the plan;
- (2) provide that such commission or agency will make such reports to the Commissioner, in such form and containing such information, as may be reasonably necessary to enable the Commissioner to perform his duties under such title or section; and
- (3) provide for such fiscal control and fund accounting procedures as may be necessary to assure proper disbursement of and accounting for Federal funds paid to the State under such title or section.

⁴ Pertains to science, mathematics and modern foreign language instruction

⁵ Pertains to statistical services of State educational agencies

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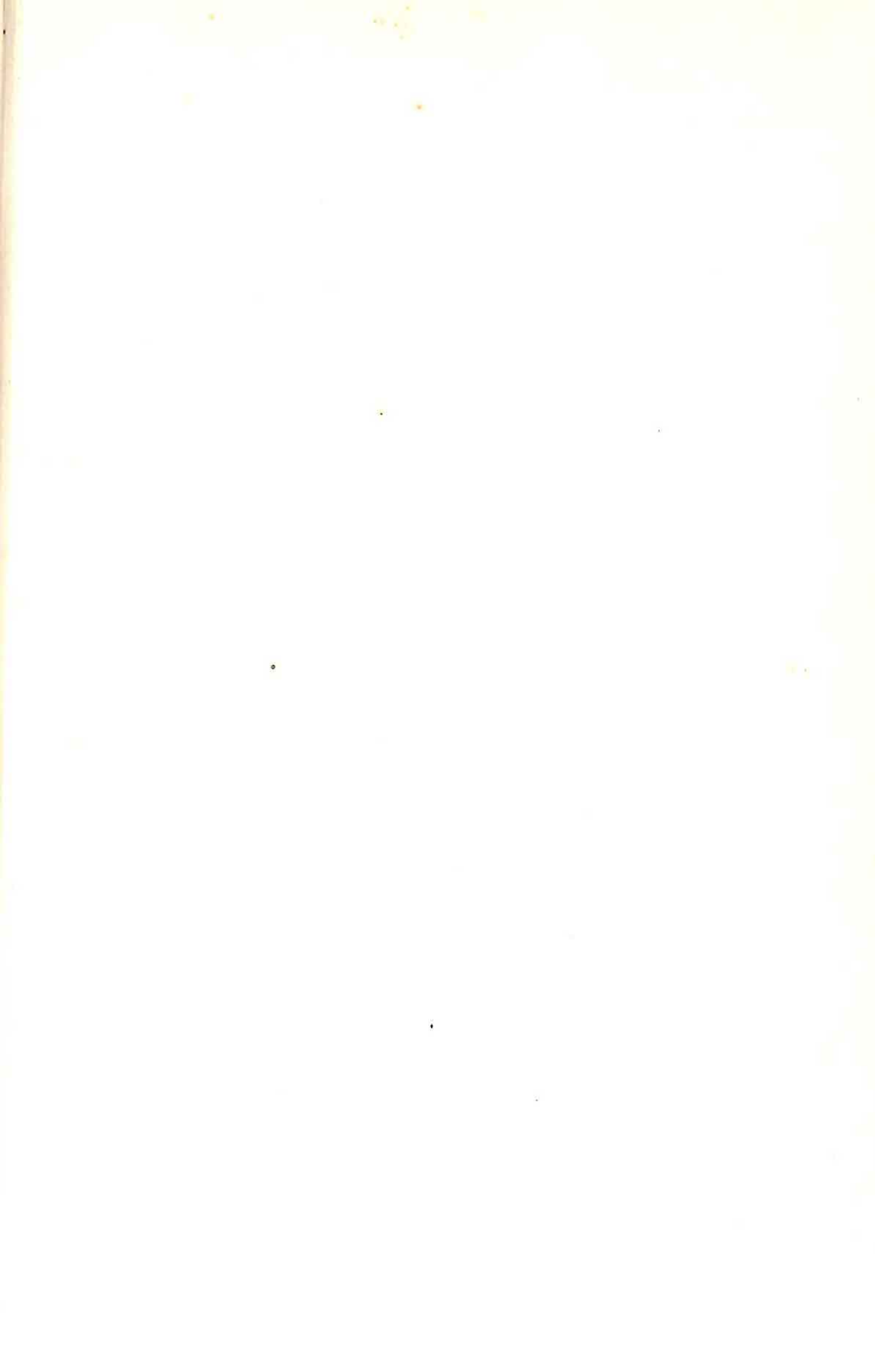
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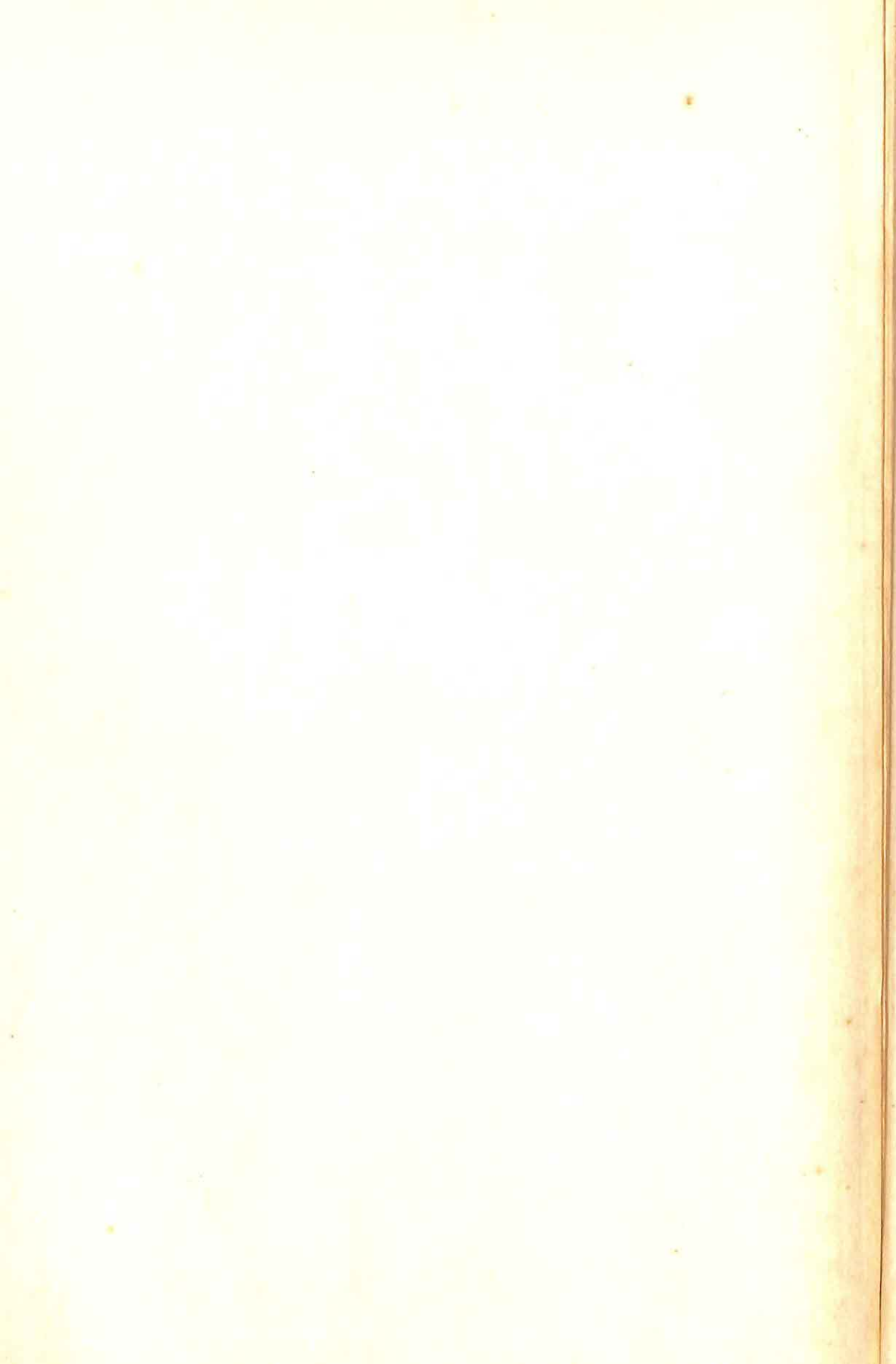
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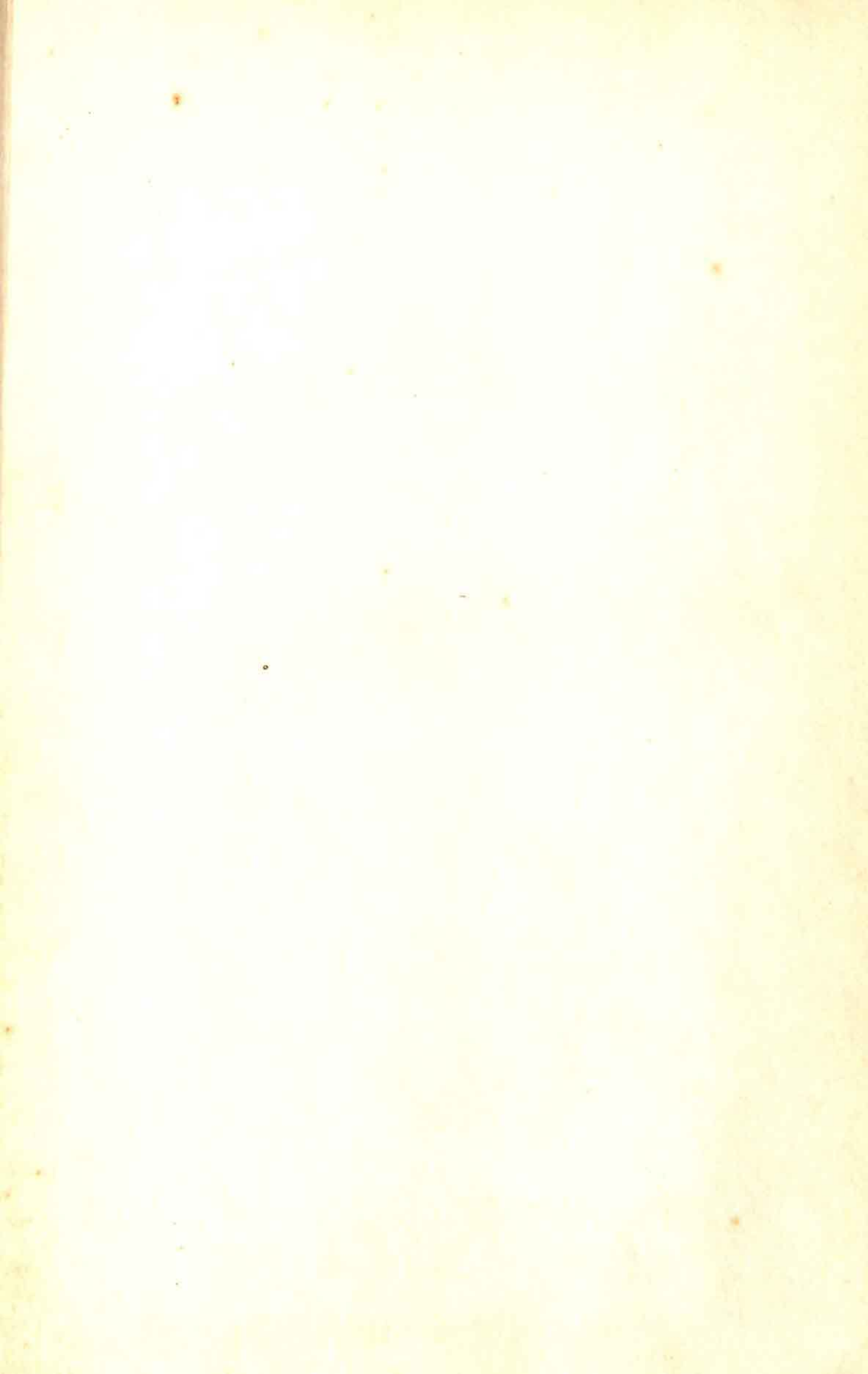
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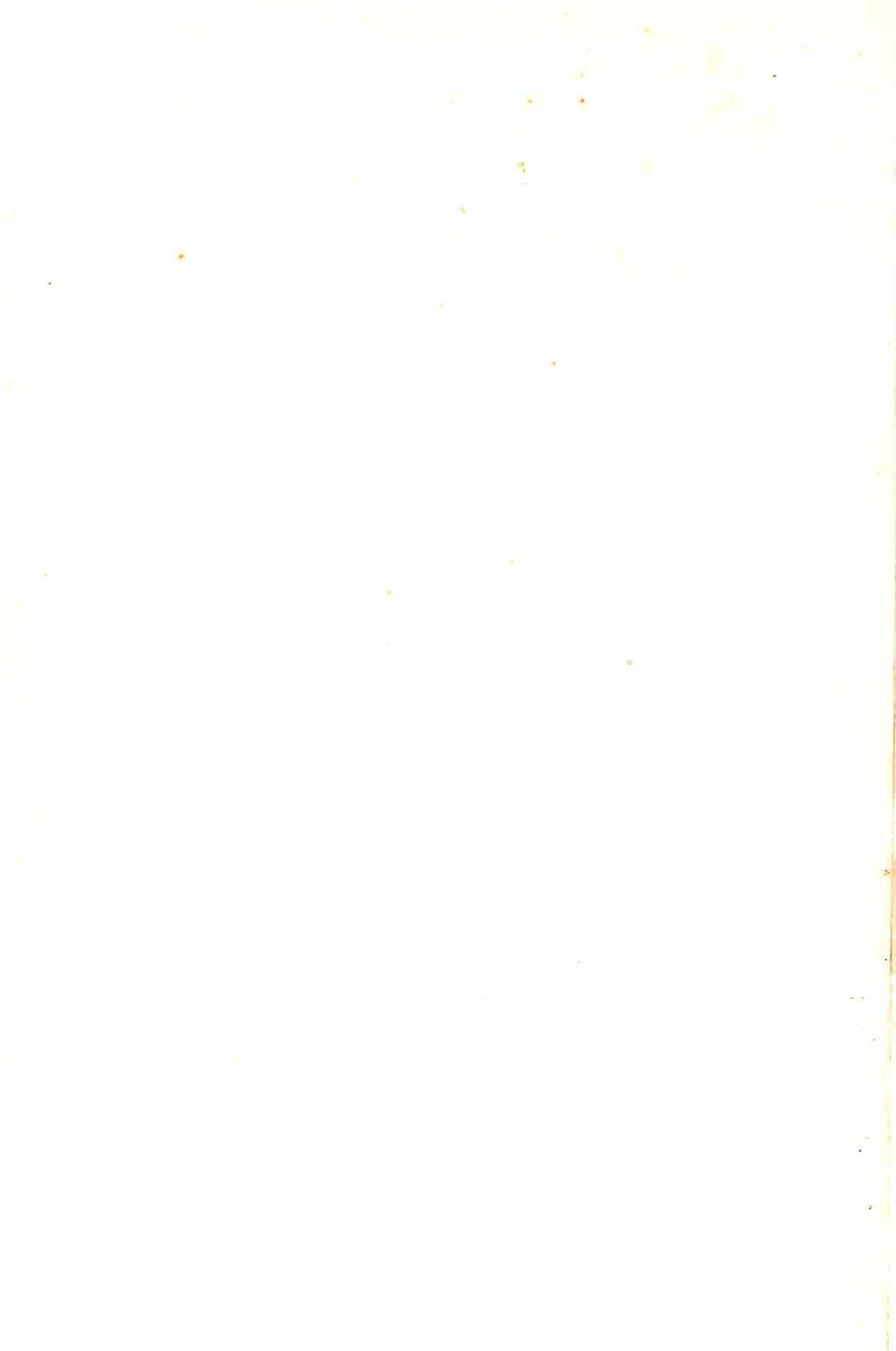
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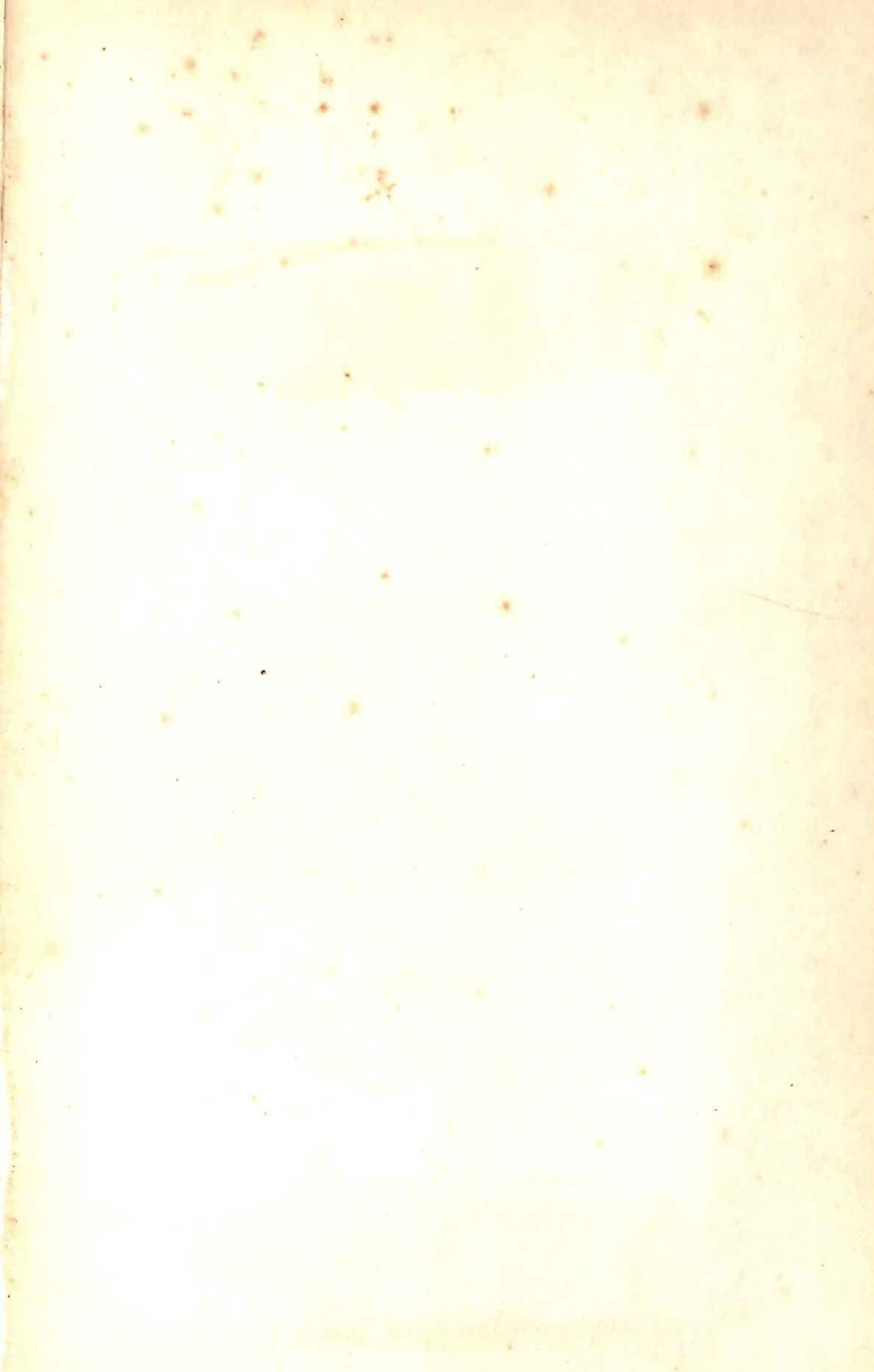












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